

Artificially Engineered and WRN Protein Bridged DNA Polymerase Lambda Leads to Improved Translesion Synthesis

Dissertation

zur

Erlangung der naturwissenschaftlichen Doktorwürde

(Dr. sc. nat.)

vorgelegt der

Mathematisch-naturwissenschaftlichen Fakultät

der

Universität Zürich

von

Prasanna Parasuraman

aus

Indien

Promotionskomitee

Prof. Dr. Ulrich Hübscher (Vorsitz)

Prof. Dr. Massimo Lopes

Prof. Dr. Giovanni Maga (External expert)

Zürich, 2010

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	4
ZUSAMMENFASSUNG	6
Part I.....	8
AIM.....	8
INTRODUCTION.....	9
Methylation of DNA	9
Repair of O-6-methyl Guanine.....	9
DNA polymerases	12
Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen (PCNA)	15
Replication protein A (RP-A)	19
PAPER I.....	21
Abstract	21
Introduction	22
Materials and Methods	24
Results.....	25
Discussion	29
Conclusion	30
References	31
Part II	46
AIM.....	47
INTRODUCTION.....	48
RecQ helicases	48
Properties of the WRN protein	48
Post-translational modifications of the WRN protein.....	50
The BER pathway	51
Role of the WRN protein in BER	52
WRN interacting proteins for a variety of DNA transactions:.....	52
7,8-dihydro-8-oxo-guanine and DNA polymerase λ	53
PAPER II	56
Abstract	57
Introduction	57
Results.....	59
Discussion	63
Materials and Methods	66
References	70
REFERENCES	87
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	97

Curriculum Vitae	100
-------------------------------	------------

The whole of science is nothing more than a refinement of every day thinking.

By Albert Einstein

ABSTRACT

DNA Polymerase (pol) λ is an X family protein sharing 32% amino acid identity to DNA pol β . Structural subdomains of DNA pol λ are similar to DNA pol β namely fingers, palm, thumb and the 8-kDa 5'-deoxyribose phosphate lyase (dRP lyase) domain. DNA pol λ has no proof reading ability since it lacks 3'→5' exonuclease activity and is known to have high affinity for deoxyribonucleosidetriphosphates (dNTPs). DNA Pol λ contains all the critical residues involved in DNA binding, nucleotide binding, nucleotide selection and catalysis of DNA polymerization. On the basis of the biochemical activity DNA pol λ is implicated in translesion DNA synthesis (TLS), base excision repair (BER) and non-homologous end joining (NHEJ). The most common lesion produced by reactive oxygen species is 7,8-dihydro-8-oxoguanine (8-oxo-G). This highly mutagenic lesion leads to G>T transversions as DNA pol λ can either incorporate dATP or dCTP opposite an 8-oxo-G lesion. DNA pol λ is very efficient in performing error-free TLS past an 8-oxo-G along with auxiliary proteins proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) and replication protein A (RP-A). The auxiliary proteins PCNA and RP-A act as molecular switches to coordinate the pol selection in 8-oxo-G repair.

The aim of the thesis part 1 was to understand the role of DNA pol λ as a translesion repair enzyme over the O-6-methylguanine (O-6-mG) lesion along with auxiliary proteins PCNA and RP-A. In order to understand the role of Tyr505, the highly conserved catalytic residue over O-6-mG, we performed a single hydrophobic amino acid substitution. The data obtained lead to the conclusion that the mutation allows for an error free TLS over O-6-mG. This work contributes to the understanding that a small change in the local environment, can lead to alteration in the hydrogen-bonding pattern, thus remarkably altering the pol fidelity.

In part 2 the role of the functional interactions between the Werner syndrome protein (WRN) and DNA pol λ was investigated. Aging is associated with damage accumulation produced by reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the genome and increased cancer incidence. 8-oxo-G being the most commonly produced lesion by ROS is repaired by DNA pol λ via

the BER pathway. WRN is a RECQ family of DNA helicase and is also known to be associated with an inherited diseases paving way to premature aging, increased cancer incidence and genomic instability. A specific recruitment of WRN and DNA pol λ from whole cell extracts to the A:8-oxo-G DNA template was identified *in vitro* and *in vivo* data demonstrate a functional interaction between DNA pol λ and WRN. The interacting interface of DNA pol λ was identified in its pol β like core domain. Cells exposed to oxidative stress enhanced the WRN and DNA pol λ association with a strong nuclear co-localization signal. These results present strong evidence for the involvement of WRN in oxidative DNA damage repair.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

DNA Polymerase (Pol) λ ist ein Protein der X Familie, welches 32% Sequenzidentität mit DNA Pol β aufweist. Strukturelle Subdomänen von DNA Pol λ haben Ähnlichkeit zu den Finger-, Handfläche-, Daumen- und der 8 kDa 5'-Deoxyribosephosphat Lyase (dRP Lyase) Domänen von DNA Pol β . DNA Pol λ hat keine Korrekturfähigkeit, weil ihr die 3'→5' Exonukleaseaktivität fehlt, und sie zeigt hohe Affinität zu Desoxyribonucleosidtriphosphaten (dNTPs). Sie enthält alle notwendigen Reste, welche an der Bindung und Selektion von DNA und Nukleotiden und an der Katalyse der DNA Polymerisierung beteiligt sind. Basierend auf biochemischen Experimenten wird eine Rolle von DNA Pol λ in der Translational-DNA-Synthese (TLS), Basen- Exzisions Reparatur (BER) und der Verknüpfung von nichthomologen Enden vermutet. Die häufigste Läsion, welche durch reaktive Sauerstoffspezies hervorgerufen wird, ist 7,8-Dihydro-8-oxoguanin (8-oxo-G). Diese höchst mutagene Läsion führt zu G>T Transversionen, weil DNA Pol λ sowohl dATP als auch dCTP im DNA Strang gegenüber der 8-oxo-G Läsion einfügen kann. Zusammen mit den Hilfsproteinen "Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen" (PCNA) und "Replication Protein" (RP-A) kann DNA Pol λ sehr effizient fehlerfreie TLS ausführen. Dies geschieht meist durch BER. Die beiden Hilfsproteine fungieren dabei als molekulare Schalter, welche die Selektion der DNA pol in der 8-oxo-G Reparatur koordinieren.

Das Ziel des ersten Teils dieser Doktorarbeit war die Funktion von DNA Pol λ als Reparaturenzym für die O-6-Methylguanin (O-6-mG) Läsion in Kooperation mit PCNA und RP-A zu untersuchen. Um die Rolle des höchst konservierten katalytischen Rests Tyr505 zu ergründen, wurde eine einzelne hydrophobe Aminosäuresubstitution von Tyr505Met im aktiven Zentrum durchgeführt. Unsere Beobachtungen haben zum Schluss geführt, dass diese Mutation eine fehlerfreie TLS von O-6-mG erlaubt. Damit trägt diese Arbeit zur Sicht bei, dass eine kleine Veränderung, welche das Wasserstoffbrückenmuster verändert, die DNA Pol Genauigkeit bemerkenswert beeinflussen kann.

Im zweiten Teil wurde die Rolle der funktionalen Interaktion zwischen dem Werner-Syndrom Protein (WRN) und DNA Pol λ untersucht. Das Altern ist mit einer Ansammlung

von Beschädigungen des Genoms durch reaktive Sauerstoffspezies (ROS) und einem erhöhten Auftreten von Krebserkrankungen verbunden. 8-oxo-G ist die häufigste durch ROS hervorgerufene Läsion und wird via BER von DNA Pol λ repariert. WRN ist ein Protein der RecQ Familie von DNA Helicasen und wird assoziiert mit Erbkrankheiten, welche vorzeitiges Altern, erhöhte Krebshäufigkeit und Genominstabilität hervorrufen. Eine Rekrutierung von WRN und DNA Pol λ aus Zellextrakten ans A:8-oxo-G DNA Templat konnte nachgewiesen werden. *In vitro* und *in vivo* Daten zeigen eine funktionale Interaktion zwischen DNA Pol λ und WRN. Als interagierende Berührungsfläche von DNA Pol λ wurde ihre Kerndomäne identifiziert, welche Ähnlichkeit mit DNA Pol β aufweist. Zellen welche oxidativem Stress ausgesetzt sind verstärken die Assoziation zwischen WRN und DNA Pol λ , welche dabei eine starke Kolokalisation im Zellkern zeigen. Diese Resultate stellen einen starken Beweis dar für die Einbindung von WRN in der Reparatur von oxidativen Schäden an der DNA.

Part I

AIM

DNA lesions that are constantly produced by exogenous and endogenous chemicals and other agents can result in uncontrolled duplication of cells and therefore leading to cancer. The ability of certain DNA polymerases to bypass such toxic lesions accurately is required to maintain genomic stability. In context to the above scenario the aim of part 1 of this thesis project was to study translesion synthesis by DNA polymerase λ , a member of the X-family DNA polymerase, over the highly toxic O-6-methylguanine lesion. Single hydrophobic substitution mutants of the active site residues were constructed to unveil its possible role in nucleotide selectivity opposite the lesion. This was extended a step forward to understand the role of the auxiliary proteins proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) and replication protein (RP-A) in the bypass of the O-6-methylguanine lesion.

INTRODUCTION

O-6-methylguanine (O-6-mG) is a minor modification that leads to highly mutagenic DNA adduct (1). Exogenous compounds like N-methyl-N-nitrosourea, methyl methane sulfonate and N-methyl-N'-nitro-nitrosoguanine, endogenous biochemical compounds like S-adenosylmethionine and metabolically nitrosated amines and amides such as betaine and choline can produce O-6-methylguanine (2-4). Compounds like nitrates and nitrites found in food and beverages can form methylating agents in cells (5).

Methylation of DNA

Twelve different sites on DNA bases are attacked, by most methylating agents, including all the exocyclic oxygen and most ring nitrogens. They can also methylate oxygen atoms in the phosphate of the sugar-phosphate backbone, thereby generating methylphosphotriesters (6,7). O-6-mG DNA lesions are induced by SN1 or SN2 mode of nucleophilic substitution reactions. Methylating agents decide the proportion of alkylation that occurs at different sites of the DNA bases. SN1 agents, such as N-methyl-N-nitrosourea and N-methyl-N'-nitro-nitrosoguanine are highly mutagenic because they react more readily with the oxygens in DNA to generate the main mispairing adduct O-6-mG and also other minor adducts (8). DNA polymerases (pols) stall at these lesions and insert the incorrect base thymine at a frequency of more than 90% during replication (9). Due to the mispairing, with thymine during DNA replication GC→AT transition mutations occurs (10).

Repair of O-6-methyl Guanine

The O-6-mG DNA lesion is recognized and repaired by the methyl guanine DNA methyltransferase (MGMT) protein and by DNA-mismatch repair (MMR) pathway.

O-6-methylguanine methyltransferase (MGMT):

The O-6-mG adduct in DNA is removed by an ubiquitous and unique repair protein, O-6-mG DNA methyltransferase (MGMT; DNA-O-6-methylguanine protein-L-cysteine S-

methyltransferase, EC 2.1.1.63) present in most species (11). Unlike other enzymes this protein transfers the methyl group from the lesion in a stoichiometric second-order reaction (12). The methyl lesion is covalently bound to a cysteine residue within the active site of the protein and is therefore called a “suicidal protein” (13) (Figure 1.1).

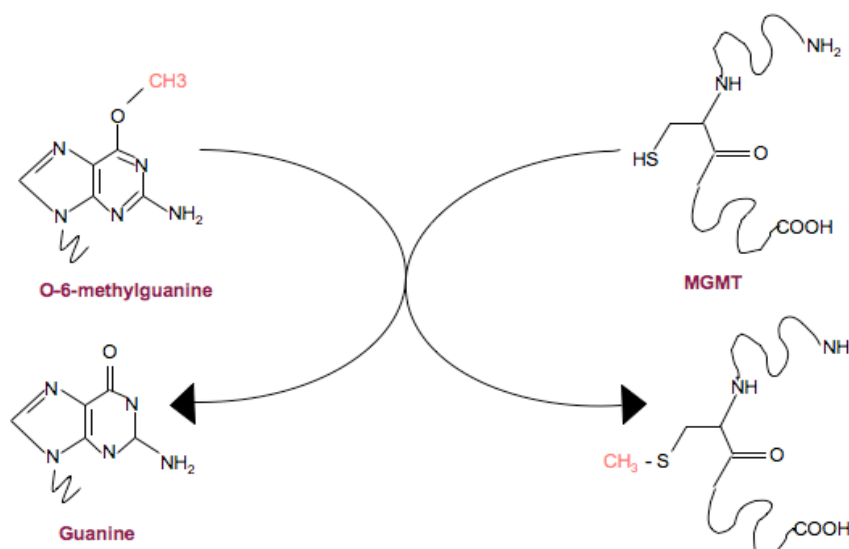


Figure 1: **Reaction mechanism of MGMT.** The O-6-alkylguanine DNA alkyltransferase protein scans double-stranded DNA for alkylation at the O6 position of guanine. Covalent transfer of the alkyl group (in the figure shown as methyl group, CH₃ group) to the conserved active site cysteine inactivates the MGMT protein and restores the guanine to normal. Reproduced from Gerson, S.L, Nature Reviews Cancer, **4**, 943-955 (2004).

In mammals, MGMT expression is highly regulated in different tissues and cell lines (14-16). It functions as an alkyl acceptor of O-6-mG. MGMT can also repair O-6-mG in open chromatin during transcription and replication as well as in condensed DNA. It is known that Mgmt-knockout mice (Mgmt^{-/-}) are more sensitive to methylating agents than the wild-type (wt) mice (Mgmt^{+/+}) counterparts (17,18). This illustrates the importance of MGMT in the repair of O-6-mG lesions.

Mismatch repair (MMR) and O-6-methyl Guanine lesion:

During DNA replication, thymine is mispaired to O-6-mG by replicative DNA pols. If the O-6-mG lesion is not repaired by MGMT a O-6-mG:T mismatch, can result leading to a subsequent mutation on the daughter strand. The O-6-mG:T mispair lesion is then

recognized by the MMR proteins MutS α and MutS β and hence the MMR repair machinery removes the dT (19). However, the O-6-mG, during the next around of replication will again pair with thymine, allowing for repeated binding of the MMR proteins. Therefore the processing of O-6-mG is aberrant. This leads to apoptosis resulting from several rounds of repair and single-strand breaks. However there are recent evidences for the recruitment of the DNA damage signaling kinase ATM and/or ATR to the site of O-6-mG:T after recognition by the MMR proteins (20). These proteins then directly signal for cell cycle checkpoints and apoptosis. Exonuclease 1 plays a vital role in the MMR pathway and is known to be involved in eliciting apoptosis (21) (Figure 2).

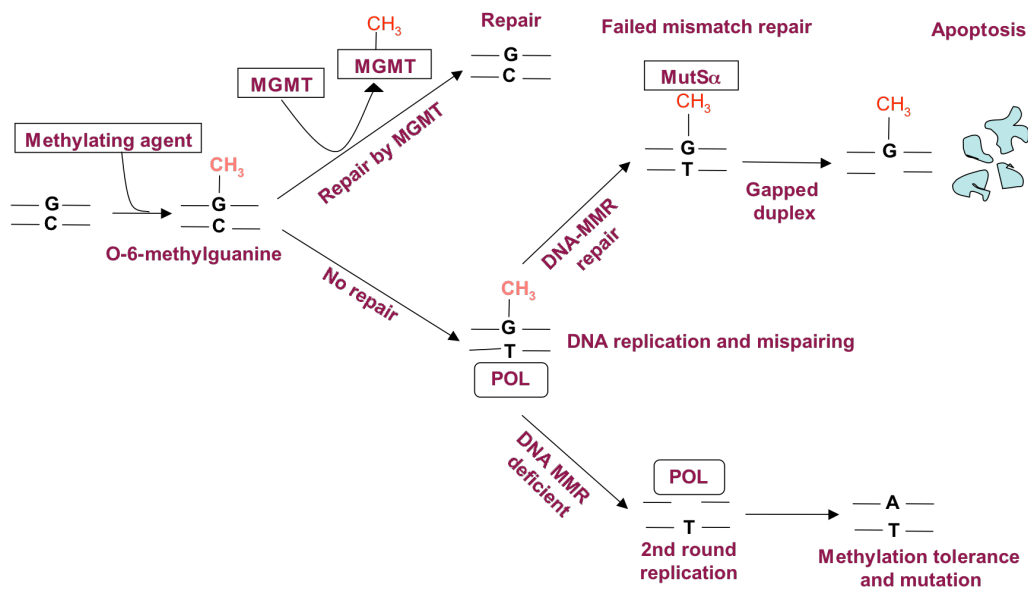


Figure 2. **DNA repair mechanisms of a O-6-mG damage.** After a O-6-mG alterations possible outcomes include: (1) repair by MGMT. (2) apoptosis (3) methylation tolerance and induction of mutations. The later outcome is predicted to be responsible for transformation. For details see text. Reproduced from J. M. Allan & L. B. Travis, Nature Reviews Cancer, 5, 943-955 (2005).

DNA polymerases and O-6-methyl Guanine lesions:

Past evidences have proven that O-6-mG lesion blocked the *E.coli* DNA pol I Klenow fragment. Eukaryotic DNA pol α , which is involved in lagging strand DNA synthesis is strongly blocked one base before the lesion, suggesting an inhibition of nucleotide

incorporation opposite the lesion (22,23). The Y family translesion DNA pol ι and κ produce mainly one nucleotide base incorporation, whereas as DNA pol η could bypass O-6-mG (24,25). Steady state kinetic analysis indicated a similar efficiency of insertion opposite the lesion for dCTP and dTTP by DNA pols η and κ . However DNA pol ι showed preferential incorporation for dTTP (26,27). DNA pol ξ is highly inefficient at inserting nucleotide opposite the lesion, but can efficiently extend from the nucleotide inserted opposite the lesion. DNA pol β , together with G:T-specific thymine-DNA glycosylase was shown to be involved in the futile cycling at the O-6-mG lesions along with MutS α (22,25). Processing of O-6-mG by mismatch correction also requires PCNA and DNA pol δ and/or ϵ (28). The above studies indicated that all known DNA pols incorporate the incorrect thymine at equal or higher frequency than the correct cytosine opposite O-6-mG.

DNA polymerases

Based on sequence homologies and structural similarities, DNA pols are grouped in the seven different families. A, B, C, D, X, Y and reverse transcriptase (RT) (29). The family X of DNA pols contain DNA pol β , λ , μ and terminal transferase (Tdt). X family DNA pols are small proteins found in vertebrates and are known to function in DNA repair (30).

DNA polymerase λ :

Human DNA pol λ is a 68kDa protein encoded by 575 amino acid by the POLL gene and maps to chromosome 10q23. DNA pol λ shares 32% amino acid sequence homology to human DNA pol β (31,32). DNA pol λ is a single subunit protein, which catalyzes DNA synthesis in a template dependent manner and has no associated 3'→5' exonuclease activity (33). The N-terminal BRCT domain is involved in protein-protein interactions; the pol β like domain is the catalytic core and a serine-proline rich region (34), which is suggested to be a target for posttranslational modification like phosphorylation, known to maintain protein stability (34-36). The catalytic core is composed of an N-terminal 8kDa domain and a polymerase domain including the fingers, palm and the thumb (37) (Figure 3). DNA pol λ

is a template dependent DNA pol, but can perform template independent incorporation with low efficiency (38). Strand displacement activity is limited by the presence of a phosphate at the 5' end of the gap by DNA pol λ . A high affinity for dNTPs by DNA pol λ , unlike DNA pol β , suggests a possible role in DNA repair when the intra-cellular dNTP concentrations are low (38). The dRP lyase activity of DNA pol λ is likely known to proceed via beta elimination using Lys310 as a major catalytic residue in short patch BER (39,40).

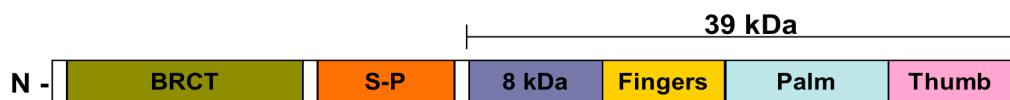


Figure 3. **Domain organization of DNA polymerase λ .** The domain of DNA pol λ site: BRCT, Ser-Pro rich domain (S-P), 8 kDa domain and the polymerase catalytic domain composed of fingers, palm and thumb subdomains. The 39kDa domain is very homologous to DNA pol β . Reproduced from Garcia-Diaz, M. et. al., DNA Repair, 4, 1358-1367 (2005).

Functional roles of DNA polymerase λ :

DNA pol λ shares similar biochemical activity as DNA pol β including the dRP lyase activity, hence a role in BER was proposed (41,42). DNA pol λ is able to perform TLS in an error free manner over 2-hydroxy-adenine and a more often formed lesion produced by reactive oxygen species called 7,8-dihydroxoguanine (8-oxo-G) along with auxiliary proteins PCNA and RP-A (43). In a very recent study DNA pol λ along with MUTYH was shown to have a role in DNA repair of 8-oxo-G lesion (44). DNA pol λ also functions in non-homologous end joining (NHEJ). The BRCT domain of pol λ is important for interaction with proteins that function in NHEJ (45,46). DNA pol λ is also known to play a role in V(D)J recombination by joining of the heavy chain junctions in B-cells since mice deleted of DNA pol λ have shorter junctions (47).

Structural insight in DNA polymerase λ

DNA Pol λ fills in short gaps when the 5' end of the gap contains a 5'-phosphate. This phenomenon is explained by the presence of an 8kDa domain that is known to interact with the 5'-phosphate (48) (Figure 4).

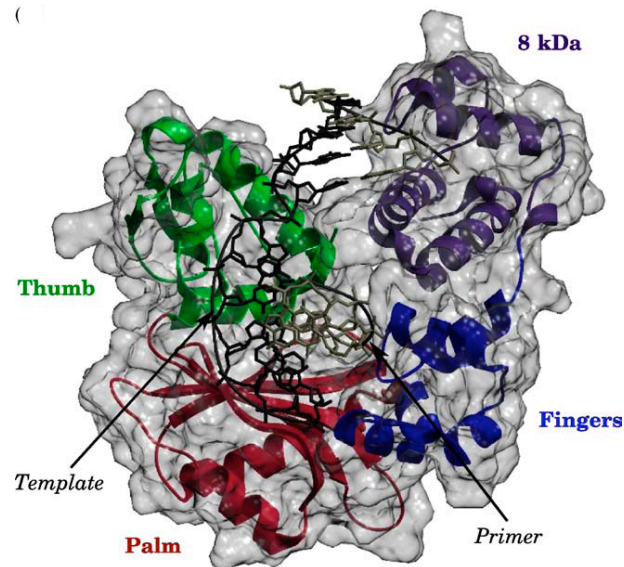


Figure 4: **Subdomain organization of DNA polymerase λ .** Ribbon representation of the 39kDa catalytic core of DNA pol λ in complex with a two-nucleotide gap (the DNA is shown in stick representation). The molecular surface is shown in transparent gray. The atomic coordinate corresponds to PBD 1RZT. Reproduced from Garcia-Diaz, M. et. al., DNA Repair, 4, 1358-1367 (2005).

Analyses of the X-ray crystal and computational studies of binary state (DNA pol λ complexed with DNA) and ternary state (DNA pol λ bound to the DNA and the correct incoming dNTP) complexes have shown that DNA pol λ undergoes a dNTP induced conformational change. It is known that the conformational change from a binary to the ternary state of DNA pol λ is minor in comparison to DNA pol β , another DNA pol from the same X family. DNA pol λ remains in a close subdomain conformation whether or not an incoming nucleotide is bound. Although, upon binding of the correct incoming nucleotide, the enzyme:DNA complex undergoes a transition from an inactive state (closed state) to an active state (open state) (49-51). The active site amino acid residues help to coordinate the chemical reaction of the enzyme:DNA complex. These protein residues act as the steric gatekeepers regulating the assembly of the active site of the chemistry (52).

Tyr505 and Phe506 of DNA pol λ are important for nucleotide discrimination. Tyr505 moves in order to permit entry of the dNTP into the active site of DNA pol λ (48,51). This movement allows for the repositioning of DNA templating base into the active site. Phe506 blocks interaction between Arg258 and Asp192 in closed state allowing for DNA motion towards the closed conformation. Ile492 interacts with Asp192 and sterically inhibits the flipping of the Phe506 to a closed conformation. Arg517 is important for coupling of the DNA template movement to the binding of the correct dNTP in the closed state (50). Finally it has been shown that DNA pol λ is able to perform gap filling longer than 1nt during DNA repair and this was structurally explained by a mechanism called “scrunching” (53).

Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen (PCNA)

PCNA is a protein that is evolutionarily conserved and is found in all eukaryotic species from yeast to human as well as in archaea and a member of the DNA sliding clamp proteins. In *E.coli* the DNA pol III β -subunit and in *E.coli* bacteriophage T4, the gene 45 protein regulate the processivity of the replicative DNA pols (54,55). PCNA is functionally associated with DNA replication, DNA repair, chromatin remodeling, cell cycle control and sister-chromatid cohesion.

Structural insight:

Alignment of amino acid sequences of PCNA from different species show considerable homology and evolutionary conservation. Surprisingly the yeast and human PCNA share only 35% sequence homology, but their three-dimensional structure is highly superimposable (56). The eukaryotic PCNA is composed of three identical monomers, linked in a head to tail fashion, forming a homotrimer and an overall toroidal shape. Each monomer consists of two similar domains linked by an interdomain connecting loop (57-59). There are two PCNA-specific binding motifs identified, of which the PIP-box (PCNA-interacting protein box) is the best studied so far (60,61). The consensus sequence of the PIP box is QXX (M/L/I) XX (F/Y)(F/Y). Another PCNA binding motif (KA

(A/L/I)(A/L/Q) XX (L/V) known as KA-box was identified which is distinct from the classical PIP-Box (62). Residues L121 to E132 at the interdomain connecting loop of PCNA was mapped to be the interacting sites for many proteins. This loop is recognized by several proteins like DNA pol δ , p21, flap-endonuclease 1 (FEN-1) and DNA ligase I (63-66). Another protein interacting sequences is in the N-terminal region including the inner α -helices, which forms part of the binding site for cyclin D and the C-terminal tail, for the interaction with DNA pol ϵ , replication factor C (RF-C), CDK2 and GADD45 (67-69).

Post-translational modifications of PCNA:

PCNA is modified by different post-translational mechanism like ubiquitination, phosphorylation, acetylation, methylation and sumoylation. One of the well-documented PCNA posttranslational modifications is ubiquitination. Lysine residues at position 164 are the highly conserved and targeted for ubiquitination. Attachment of a single ubiquitin moiety leads to monoubiquitination and building up of ubiquitin chain through Lys⁶³ results in polyubiquitination (70). Monoubiquitination occurs in a sequential manner, ubiquitin-activating enzyme E1 being the first, the ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2 (which in humans might be either Rad6A or Rad6B) and a RING finger containing E3 ubiquitin ligase called Rad18 (71,72). Polyubiquitin chain building requires the ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme Ubc113-Mms2 and a specific RING-finger containing E3 ubiquitin ligase (73). In yeast it is Rad 5 and in humans SHPRH (SNF2 histone, linker PHD RING helicase), HTLF (helicase like transcription factor) and RNF8 (ring finger protein 8) (74-76). Lysine 164 of PCNA is also the target for another modification designated as sumoylation (70). It involves the attachment of a small protein called SUMO (small ubiquitin related modifier) observed in yeast. Lysine 127 is also a known target for sumoylation, lacking in higher eukaryotes. Sumoylation of yeast PCNA, is a trigger for recruitment of a specific DNA helicase (ySrs2), which blocks recombination events during replication (77).

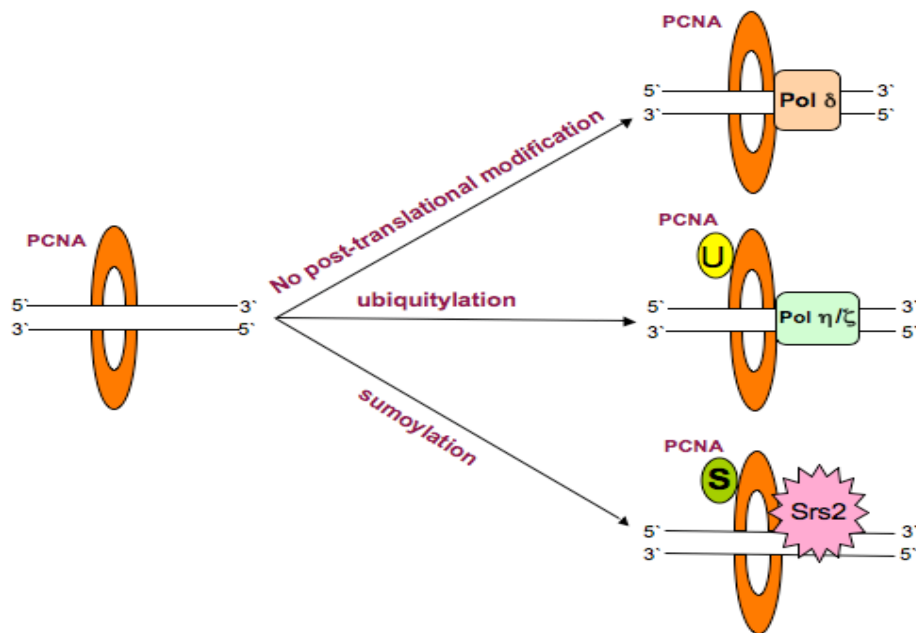


Figure 5. **Ubiquitination and sumoylation of PCNA:** Ubiquitylation (U) or sumoylation (S) of PCNA leads to affinity changes for DNA pol and in the case of sumoylation, the recruitment of helicase Srs2. Reproduced from Lopez de Saro, Current Genomics, **10**, 206-215 (2009).

Phosphorylation of Tyr21 in both humans and mouse cells stabilizes chromatin bound PCNA (78). Acetylation is another modification detected on PCNA. Acetylated and hyperacetylated PCNA are found on the chromatin and localization of the non-acetylated form in the nucleosol, strongly suggest that PCNA translocation is dependent on the acetylating status (79). Methyl esterification of PCNA on glutamic acid and aspartic acid is a new modification and its functional consequence have yet to be unveiled in detail (80).

Role of PCNA in DNA repair and translesion synthesis:

PCNA is an indispensable part of several repair pathways such as mismatch repair (MMR), nucleotide excision repair (NER) and BER (54,55). PCNA interacts with MutS homologue1 (MSH3), MutS homologue (MSH6), exonuclease 1 (Exo1) and MutL homologue (MLH1), components of the MMR pathway (81,82). The endonuclease xeroderma pigmentosum complementation group G (XPG) known to play a role in NER pathway interacts with PCNA (83). DNA damage caused by oxidating, reducing or alkylating agents and misincorporated uracils is repaired by BER. PCNA is associated with

the recruitment of BER proteins to the site of action via long-patch BER. Its interacting partners are DNA glycosylase (uracil DNA glycosylase, UNG2), methylpurine-DNA glycosylase (MPG), NTHL1 (endonuclease III), human MutY homologue (hMYH), AP-endonucleases, DNA pols δ , β and ϵ and X-ray repair complementing defective repair in Chinese-hamster cells (XRCC1) (reviewed in (84)).

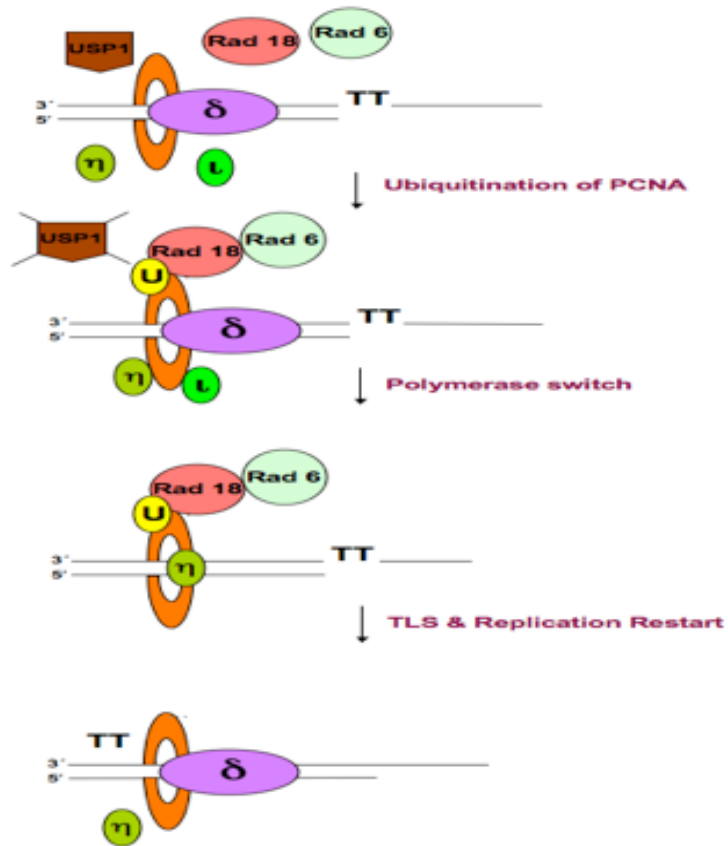


Figure 6. **Translesion DNA synthesis and DNA polymerase switch.** The example given demonstrates TLS and DNA pol switch after thymine dimers. Courtesy to Ursula Hübscher.

In eukaryotic cells a crucial pathway for DNA damage tolerance is translesion synthesis (TLS). There are specific DNA pols that are able to carry out DNA synthesis past different lesions. Recent results have shown that the lesion bypass activities of several TLS DNA pols are increased by their physical interaction with PCNA. Since TLS requires the

interplay between the specialized DNA pols η , ι , κ , λ and the replicative DNA pol δ and ϵ (85). PCNA, with its different posttranslational modifications is an ideal candidate for coordinating their functions and recruiting them to the replication fork after the damage has occurred. The switch from a replicative DNA pol δ to TLS DNA pol η and ζ is determined by the monoubiquitination of PCNA (86) (Figure5). Figure 6 shows a model for TLS and the DNA pol switch after DNA damage.

Replication protein A (RP-A)

RP-A is a human single strand DNA (ssDNA) binding protein (87). ssDNA is an intermediate of DNA metabolism which has to be protected from unwanted attack by endonucleases and genotoxic agents (88). RP-A is localized in the nucleus and is present in the replication foci in human cells (89-91).

Structure of RP-A and binding mode to single-stranded DNA:

In eukaryotes RP-A is a heterotrimer composed of three tightly associated subunits of 70, 32 and 14 kDa (referred to as RPA-70, RPA-32 and RPA-14, respectively). RP-A binds ssDNA in a highly sequential manner with a 5' to 3' binding polarity (92-94). The oligosaccharide / oligonucleotides binding fold (OB-fold) is the central structural and functional element of RP-A. RP-A is known to contain six OB folds, each of which consists of five β -strands arranged in a β -barrel shape. The RP-A 70 subunit contains four OB-folds designated as DNA binding domain A (DBD-A), DBD-B, DBD-C, and DBD-F. RP-A 32 subunit contains DBD-D and RP-A 14 has DBD-E. DBD-A and DBD-B of RP-A 70 is the major ss DNA binding domain. DBD-A and DBD-B initiate the binding interaction with a length of 8-10 nucleotides at the 5'-side of ssDNA. The binding of 13-22 nucleotide occurs with the additional involvement of DBD-C. Hence a cooperative binding of all four RP-A DBD (A-D) requires approx 30nt of ssDNA (95,96). In addition to the above-mentioned domain RP-A 32 also contains an unsaturated N-terminal phosphorylation domain. RP-A is known to be phosphorylated in a cell cycle dependent manner. RP-A undergoes phosphorylation during G1/S transition and in the M-phase

(97,98). Thus the functional role of RP-A hyperphosphorylation might be to shift a fraction of the cellular pool of RP-A from replication to DNA repair (99).

Interaction of RP-A with DNA repair proteins:

RP-A is required for all major repair pathways namely NER, BER, MMR and DNA double-strand break repair (DSBR) and homologous recombination (HR). In NER RP-A is involved in recruiting XPG, XPA and ERCCI-XPF endonuclease (100-102). RP-A participates in the gap filling reaction along with PCNA and DNA pol δ and ϵ . RP-A was implicated in BER via interaction with human uracil-DNA glycosylase (UNG2) and its stimulatory effect on long-patch BER. RP-A is also involved in MMR repair. RP-A has also been shown to interact with RAD52 and RAD51 proteins in the homologous recombination pathway (103). Human RP-A can also interact with the breast cancer susceptibility proteins BRCA1 and BRCA2 as well as tumor suppressor p53 protein (104,105).

PAPER I

Hydrophobic substitution mutation of the Y505 residue of human DNA polymerase λ increases fidelity and reduces translesion synthesis over the O-6-methylguanine lesion.

Prasanna Parasuraman¹, Rebecca Buob¹, Giovanni Maga² and Ulrich Hübscher^{1,*}

¹ Institute for Veterinary Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, University of Zürich – Irchel, Winterthurerstrasse 190, CH-8057 Zürich (Switzerland).

² Institute of Molecular Genetics IGM-CNR, via Abbiategrasso 207, I-27100 Pavia (Italy)

* Corresponding author: Ulrich Hübscher, Phone: +41 44 635 54 72, Fax: + 41 44 635 68 40, Mail: hubscher @ vetbio.uzh.ch

Running title: Bypass of O-6-mG by DNA polymerase λ .

Abstract

DNA polymerase λ (pol) a member of the DNA polymerase X family has a role in non-homologous end joining and is believed to play an important role as an accurate translesion DNA pol in base excision repair after DNA replication. We show here that a hydrophobic substitution mutant of the highly conserved residue at the active site of human DNA pol λ (Y505M) allows better incorporation of the correct nucleotide (dCTP) over an O-6-methylguanine (O-6-mG) template relative to the non-complementary nucleotide (dTTP) usually incorporated by a variety of DNA pols. In contrast the wild-type DNA pol λ incorporated as expected preferentially the incorrect dTTP. This is the first report of a DNA pol showing faithful bypass of the O-6-mG lesion and can help to elucidate the molecular basis for the mutagenic potential of this lesion. When, however, RP-A was included in the reaction on the O-6-mG lesion inhibition of dCTP and dTTP incorporation was seen for both the wildtype and the Y505M mutant DNA pol λ suggesting a modulatory role of this auxiliary protein over this lesion.

Introduction

There is substantial evidence that genetic instability is displayed with increased rate of errors in DNA synthesis. In this process, nucleotide selection within the active site of a DNA polymerase (pol) is the major contribution to the fidelity of DNA synthesis (1). Nevertheless, numerous endogenous and exogenous agents damage DNA. Some of the damage may escape repair and compromise the fidelity of replication and transcription (2). One such DNA lesion is O-6-mG, caused by exogenous methylating agents like N-methyl-N-nitrosourea, methyl methane sulfonate, N-methyl-N'-nitro-N-nitrosoguanidine and 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone produced by tobacco burning and endogenous products of metabolism like betaine and choline, along with chemotherapeutic agents procarbazine and temazolomide (3-5). Methylating agents primarily react with exocyclic nitrogen or oxygen atoms by adding a methyl group on purines and pyrimidines, resulting in an impaired adduct, O-6-mG (2). The adduct O-6-mG mispairs with an incorrect thymine during DNA replication instead of a correct cytosine, resulting in GC→AT transition mutation (6). A ubiquitous O-6-methylguanine-DNA-methyltransferase (MGMT) in a stoichiometric fashion repairs O-6-mG by directly reverting DNA base damage (7). MGMT transfers the methyl group from the mutagenic DNA lesion to a cysteine residue within the active site, rendering it incapable of continued repair, hence the number of lesion that can be cleared from a cell's genome is limited by the available MGMT molecules, unless more of the protein is made (8). This type of repair is error free and noncytotoxic. However, in many human solid tumor cell lines and in some non-tumor tissues the ability to repair O-6-mG is lacking due to the inactivation of MGMT (9). The initial event in O-6-mG induced mismatch repair may be the recognition of dT-O-6-mG (after removal of methyl group by MGMT) by the hMSH2. Functional deficiency of these mismatch recognition proteins imparts resistance to alkylation-induced cytotoxicity (10,11). Alternatively, a G:T specific thymine DNA glycosylase can also remove thymine from dT-O-6-mG base pair, allowing for the abasic site to be acted upon by apurinic/apyrimidinic (AP) endonucleases. However, it was shown that DNA pol β along with G:T-specific thymine-DNA glycosylase (along with other proteins such as MutS α) may be involved in the futile cycling at the O-6-mG lesions (9).

It has been shown that O-6-mG lesion blocked *E.coli* DNA pol I Klenow fragment as well as the eukaryotic DNA pol α involved in DNA replication (9,12). The translesion synthesis (TLS) Y family DNA pols η and κ show similar efficiencies for insertion of dCTP and dTTP opposite the O-6-mG, while DNA pol ι , which had a strong preference for dTTP, along with the major repair enzyme DNA pol β (13,14). Another report suggested that DNA pol κ is a poor, TLS DNA pol over O-6-mG, but when it incorporated either T or C efficient elongation is achieved by the replicative DNA pol δ (15). The above studies indicated that all known DNA pols incorporate the incorrect thymine at equal or higher frequency than the correct cytosine opposite O-6-mG. DNA pol λ was shown to incorporate dTTP at relatively high efficiency then dCTP for TLS past O-6-mG (16). Recently we have shown that pol λ is very efficient in performing error-free TLS past an 8-oxo-G and 2-OH-A lesions along with auxiliary proteins PCNA and RP-A (17,18).

In order to understand the carcinogenic mechanism of O-6-mG we studied the behaviour of DNA pol λ in the presence of the auxiliary proteins RP-A and PCNA. We furthermore constructed and characterized the biochemical properties of DNA pol λ wt by exchanging the conserved Y505 amino acid of the nucleotide-binding domain with hydrophobic amino acid residue methionine in the presence of auxiliary proteins RP-A and PCNA. DNA Pol λ conserved active site residue Y505 was shown to be involved in determining nucleotide selectivity opposite the lesion (19-21). Work of the group of Marx et al suggesting that hydrophobic substitution mutations can result in a more selective enzyme (22,23). Our data suggests that Y505M mutant is a novel in-vitro evolved DNA pol λ that allows the error free TLS over O-6-mG by incorporating the correct dCTP. This is in contrast to the parental pol λ wt, as expected, incorporated the wrong nucleotide dTTP. Finally, the auxiliary protein RP-A displays a curial role in negatively regulating the TLS of both pol λ wt and Y505M over O-6-mG.

Materials and Methods

Oligonucleotide synthesis

Oligonucleotides were synthesized by Purimex. All oligonucleotides were purified by denaturing polyacrylamide gels (PAGE).

Enzymes and Proteins

The bacterial expression plasmid pRSET-B encoding human DNA pol λ wt and the Tyr505Ala were cloned, expressed and purified as described previously (24). Tyr505Meth was cloned and purified as described previously, Wimmer et al (25). Recombinant human PCNA and human RP-A were expressed and purified as described, Maga et al (17). After purification, the proteins were >90% homogenous as judged by SDS-PAGE and Coomassie staining.

Single nucleotide insertion assays

The primer/template complexes (whose sequence as indicated in the respective Figure) were annealed as described in the primer extension assay. The reactions were initiated by adding 10 μ M of the indicated dNTP (unless indicated in the figures), in a reaction mixture (10 μ l) containing 50mM Tris-HCl pH 7.0, 0.25mg/ml BSA, 10mM DTT and 10fmol of the 5'³²P-labelled primer template, DNA pol λ wt, Y505M, and Y505A at 40nM and 1.0mM Mg²⁺, and incubated at 37°C for 15min. After incubation, reactions were stopped by adding loading buffer (95% formamide, 10mM EDTA, Xylene cyanol and Bromophenol blue) heated at 95°C for 3min, loaded and separated on a 7M Urea 15% polyacrylamide gel and the products mixture analysed by autoradiography.

Sequence dependent incorporation assay

The primer/template complexes were annealed as described in the primer extension assays (sequence as depicted in the respective Figure). In order to determine the rates of dCTP and

dTTP incorporation with respect to nucleotide substitution after the lesion, dCTP and dTTP were titrated from 1 to 100 μ M in reaction conditions as stated above in the primer extension assay. The observed rates of nucleotide incorporation were calculated from the values of integrated gel band intensities.

$$I^*_T/I_T-1$$

Where T is the target site, the template position of interest; I^*_T is the sum of the integrated intensities at positions T, T + 1,, T + n

All the intensity values were normalized to the total intensity of the corresponding lane to correct for difference in gel loading. The apparent K_m and k_{cat} values were calculated by plotting the initial velocities in dependence of the nucleotide concentration [dCTP] and [dTTP], and fitting the data according to the Michaelis –Menten equation:

$$K_{cat} [E]_0/(1+k_m/[dNTP])$$

Where $[E]_0$, was the input enzyme concentrations. Nucleotide concentrations used were 1 μ M, 10 μ M and 100 μ M. Nucleotide incorporation efficiencies were defined as the k_{cat}/K_m ratio. Under single nucleotide incorporation conditions $k_{cat}=k_{pol}k_{off}/(k_{pol}+k_{off})$ and $K_m=K_s k_{off}/(k_{pol}+k_{off})$, where k_{pol} is the true polymerization rate, k_{off} is the constant for nucleotide binding. Thus, k_{cat}/K_m values are equal to k_{pol}/K_s .

Results

The error-prone bypass of O-6-mG by wild-type DNA polymerase λ is negatively regulated by RP-A.

DNA pol λ wt was first were analysed on 39:72 template, containing a single O-6-mG lesion, in the presence of the indicated dNTP. DNA pol λ wt incorporated the “correct” nucleotide” (dCTP) opposite normal G in contrast allowing for “incorrect nucleotide” (dTTP) incorporation opposite O-6-mG compared to the dCTP insertion (Fig 1a lane 3 and Fig 1b lanes 3 and 5). We have previously shown that the auxiliary proteins PCNA and RP-A are able to increase the catalytic efficiency, fidelity and TLS of DNA pol λ over 8-oxo-G and 2-OH-A. As shown in Fig 1c (lanes 1-4, 6-9) increasing concentrations of RP-A alone was able to inhibit dCTP and dTTP incorporation opposite the O-6-mG by DNA pol λ wt

in a concentration dependent manner. However dCTP incorporation by DNA pol λ wt was reduced by 79% and the dTTP incorporation was reduced by 66% by RP-A. PCNA showed no effect on dCTP and dTTP incorporation opposite O-6-mG (Fig 1d, lanes 1-4 and lanes 6-9). These data demonstrate that RP-A has a curial role in negatively regulating the error prone TLS by DNA pol λ wt across O-6mG.

Single base substitution of DNA polymerase Y505M allows a reduced DNA polymerization.

We have previously shown that a highly conserved (Fig 2a) DNA pol λ residue Tyr505 is important for nucleotide discrimination, being involved in interactions with the incoming dNTP. We therefore tested the mutant Y505M and the wt for DNA polymerase activity a 5'-end-labelled 39:72 primer/template DNA oligonucleotide substrate. All the reactions were performed in the presence of Mg^{2+} and the products were resolved by sequencing gel analysis. As shown in (Fig 2b) the Y505M mutant displayed a reduced activity (lanes 7-10) compared to the DNA pol λ wt (lanes 2-5). The kinetic parameters for nucleotide incorporation for both the enzymes were determined as shown in (Fig 2c). However, Y505M substitution showed an approx two-fold decrease in the k_m for the nucleotide substrate with respect to DNA pol λ wt. As a result, the Y505M mutant displayed a two-fold reduction in the nucleotide utilization efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m).

The mutant DNA polymerase λ Y505M but not the wildtype can incorporate the correct dCTP opposite a O-6-mG in a single nucleotide insertion experiment

Both wt and Y505M DNA pol λ were next analysed on 39:72 template, but containing a single O-6-mG lesion, in the presence of the indicated dNTP. Y505M incorporated the “correct” (dCTP) opposite O-6-mG when compared to the dCTP insertion by pol λ wt (Fig 3a, compare lanes 3 and 8). On the opposite the mutant Y505M catalysed “incorrect” dTTP insertion opposite O-6-mG at a highly reduced rate compared to the DNA pol λ wt (lanes 5 and 10). In comparison, no difference was noticed against undamaged dG for both DNA pol λ wt and Y505M (Fig 3b lanes 3, 8). Interesting Y505M showed poor TLS over O-6-mG in the presence of all four nucleotide in comparison to wt (Fig 3a, compare lanes 6 and

11). In order to further investigate these effects, dNTPs titrations were performed in the presence of an enzyme concentration and the data was fitted to Michaelis-Menten equation. As shown in (Fig 3c) the DNA pol λ wt incorporates dTTP opposite O-6-mG almost 3-fold better than dCTP, while Y505M did not incorporate any “incorrect” dTTP opposite the lesion. Moreover, Y505M incorporated the “correct” dCTP opposite the lesion almost 9-fold better than the wt. The kinetic parameters are summarised in Table 1. Neither wt nor Y505M showed any difference in misincorporation of dTTP opposite dG (Fig 3d), suggesting that Y505M does not induce any increase in discrimination against a normal T:G mismatch. However on substituting Y505 with the non-hydrophobic amino acid alanine incorporated the dTTP more preferentially than the correct dCTP (Fig 3e, compare lane 3 and 5).

The Y505M DNA polymerase λ mutant did not have an intrinsic preference for the incorporation of dCTP

When both the wt and Y505M DNA pols were tested in the presence of 8-oxo-G lesion, they both incorporated dCTP better than dATP opposite the lesion, without differences between them, suggesting that the observed effect for the mutant Y505M was specific for dCTP incorporation against O-6-mG (Fig 4a compare lanes 3 and 8). Similarly, when tested on an 8-oxo-A template, both enzymes showed preferential incorporation of dGTP without any difference between wt and Y505M (Fig 4b compare lanes 4 and 9). These two control experiments suggested that the Y505M mutant did not have an intrinsic preference for the incorporation of dCTP.

The Y505M DNA polymerase λ favours dCTP incorporation opposite O-6-mG independently from the sequence context.

To test for the effect of flanking nucleotides on O-6-mG, we next titrated dCTP and dTTP on primer/template where the first nucleotides in the template strand was O-6-mG, followed by either G, A, T or C respectively. No significant difference was observed, with respect to dCTP or dTTP incorporation, on O-6-mG/C and O-6-mG/T templates (Figure S1A). With the O-6-mG/G template, it was seen that the Y505M mutant was more efficient

than wt in incorporating dCTP (Fig 5a) and less efficient in incorporating dTTP (Fig 5c). Similarly, with the template O-6-mG/A the wt was more efficient than Y505M in incorporating dTTP (Fig 3b) but less efficient in incorporating dCTP (Fig 5d). As expected most product accumulated at position +2 (Fig 5a and b). However significant accumulation of +3/4 products could be seen with the O-6-mG/G template and dCTP as substrate (Fig 5a), whereas only very few +3 products were generated with the O-6-mG/A template in combination with dTTP (Fig 5b). This indicated that in the presence of dCTP, DNA pol λ makes template slippage at the C, at +3 position, thus the +3/4 products are generated by using the GG at position 4 and 5 as the templating bases. This explains the fact that only a minimal amount of +3 products are detected with 6-mG/A templates in combination with dTTP, since in such case no slippage can occur.

The error-free bypass of O-6-mG by DNA polymerase λ Y505M is also negatively regulated by RP-A.

The data so far indicated that Y505M was able to perform error-free incorporation of dCTP opposite O-6-mG more efficiently than the wt, at an expense of reduced translesion synthesis. Thus, finally the PCNA and RP-A effects on O-6mG bypass by Y505M was investigated. As shown in Fig 6a (lanes 1-4, 6-9) increasing concentration of RP-A alone was also able to inhibit dCTP and dTTP incorporation opposite the O-6-mG by Y505M in a concentration dependent manner. Lanes 0 and 5 are control reactions in the absence of dNTPs. However the “correct” dCTP incorporation by Y505M was reduced by 53% under the same condition as DNA pol λ wt displaying the fact the Y505M still allows for error-free incorporation opposite O-6-mG under such conditions. The “wrong” dTTP incorporation was reduced by 80% by Y505M respectively (Fig 6b). When tested PCNA showed no effect on dCTP and dTTP incorporation opposite O-6-mG (Fig 6c lanes). These data suggest that RP-A has a curial role in negatively regulating the TLS by pol λ wt and Y505M across O-6mG.

Discussion

DNA encounters various assaults in the native structure and sequence throughout the life span of a cell. The common types of DNA damage like the O-6-mG damage that interferes with replication fork progression can cause cell-cycle arrest and cell death. Furthermore, DNA lesions that persist into the S phase of the cell cycle can obstruct replication fork progression, resulting in the formation of replication-associated DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs) (26). DSBs are generally considered to be the most toxic of all DNA lesion. The fact that all known DNA pols to date show a preferential incorporation of T opposite O-6-mG, led us to investigate the molecular mechanisms for nucleotide selection by DNA pol λ opposite this particular lesion along with auxiliary proteins. RP-A is an important “sensor” protein for DNA replication fork stalling and was shown to act as a molecular switch to activate DNA pol λ dependent highly efficient and faithful repair of 8-oxo-G, repressing DNA pol β activity along with PCNA (27). RP-A inhibited the dCTP and dTTP incorporation by DNA pol λ wt, suggesting that RP-A effect is influenced by DNA template containing lesion. PCNA, which is known to interact both functionally and physically with DNA pol λ showed no effect over this lesion. The above finding is in contrast to the recent data from our laboratories suggesting that DNA pol λ was most accurate in dealing with 8-oxo-G and 2-OH-A in combination with PCNA and RP-A. This allows for strong evidence that RP-A and PCNA plays a vital role in oxidative repair and also allows for MGMT or mismatch repair (MMR) proteins to take over O-6-mG. However the hydrophobic substitution mutation of the active site residue Y505 presented in this study is believed to be involved in dNTP binding completely changed nucleotide incorporation selectivity opposite the O-6-mG lesion by preferentially incorporating the correct nucleotide dCTP. This novel phenomenon was not shared by non-hydrophobic mutation Y505 to alanine and other DNA pols belonging to the X family, which produced high error rates when replicating over the O-6-mG lesion. Our data also shows that the preferential incorporation of dCTP opposite O-6-mG by Y505, is specific for this lesion, since no differences in incorporation opposite 8-oxo-G or 8-oxo-A between the Y505M mutant and the wt enzyme could be seen. Pol λ wt and Y505M misincorporation frequency of deoxynucleotide triphosphate opposite O-6-mG are not influenced by each possible

nearest-neighbour context, contrasts with in vitro primer extension studies showing that misincorporation by other pols is dependent on the surrounding sequence (28). With reference to the extension step, when starting from an O-6-mG primer basepair, most eukaryotic pols combine relative high discrimination and low efficiency. In agreement to the published data by Blanco et al, Y505M represent a similar pattern as DNA pol λ , having a relatively high discrimination and relatively lower extension efficiency for the mutagenic pair O-6-mG/dT than the correct base pair O-6-mG/dC, allowing us to conclude that the in-vitro generated Y505 would be a best candidate to guarantee an error free extension step during by pass of O-6-mG (Figure S2A).

Conclusion

In the present study we show the RP-A, an essential component of the cellular DNA replication and DNA repair machineries could not only modulate the intrinsic miscoding ability of DNA pol λ but can also completely suppress the incorporation of nucleotides opposite O-6-mG in a concentration dependent manner. The hydrophobic substitution mutant of the highly conserved residue Y505 in the active site of DNA pol is essential for its fidelity. The Y505M mutant of the pol λ is the first DNA pol described to date, which is able to preferentially incorporate dCTP opposite O-6-mG.

Acknowledgements

We thank U.Wimmer for her guidance and E. Ferrari for instructions in protein purification. We also thank A. Marx for the 8-oxo-A template and for critical reading of the paper. PP is supported by the “UBS in Auftrag eines Kunden” by “Oncosuisse”, RB by the Swiss National Science Foundation and UH by the University of Zurich.

Conflict of interest statement. None declared.

References

1. Kool, E.T. (2002) Active site tightness and substrate fit in DNA replication. *Annu Rev Biochem*, 71, 191-219.
2. Sedgwick, B. (2004) Repairing DNA-methylation damage. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*, 5, 148-157.
3. Bodell, W.J. and Singer, B. (1979) Influence of hydrogen bonding in DNA and polynucleotides on reaction of nitrogens and oxygens toward ethylnitrosourea. *Biochemistry*, 18, 2860-2863.
4. Boiteux, S. and Laval, J. (1982) Mutagenesis by alkylating agents: coding properties for DNA polymerase of poly (dC) template containing 3-methylcytosine. *Biochimie*, 64, 637-641.
5. Larson, K., Sahm, J., Shenkar, R. and Strauss, B. (1985) Methylation-induced blocks to in vitro DNA replication. *Mutat Res*, 150, 77-84.
6. Kat, A., Thilly, W.G., Fang, W.H., Longley, M.J., Li, G.M. and Modrich, P. (1993) An alkylation-tolerant, mutator human cell line is deficient in strand-specific mismatch repair. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 90, 6424-6428.
7. Margison, G.P. and Santibanez-Koref, M.F. (2002) O6-alkylguanine-DNA alkyltransferase: role in carcinogenesis and chemotherapy. *Bioessays*, 24, 255-266.
8. Dimitri, A., Burns, J.A., Broyde, S. and Scicchitano, D.A. (2008) Transcription elongation past O6-methylguanine by human RNA polymerase II and bacteriophage T7 RNA polymerase. *Nucleic Acids Res*, 36, 6459-6471.
9. Singh, J., Su, L. and Snow, E.T. (1996) Replication across O6-methylguanine by human DNA polymerase beta in vitro. Insights into the futile cytotoxic repair and mutagenesis of O6-methylguanine. *J Biol Chem*, 271, 28391-28398.
10. Karran, P. and Bignami, M. (1994) DNA damage tolerance, mismatch repair and genome instability. *Bioessays*, 16, 833-839.
11. Snow, E.T., Foote, R.S. and Mitra, S. (1984) Base-pairing properties of O6-methylguanine in template DNA during in vitro DNA replication. *J Biol Chem*, 259, 8095-8100.

12. Dosanjh, M.K., Galeros, G., Goodman, M.F. and Singer, B. (1991) Kinetics of extension of O6-methylguanine paired with cytosine or thymine in defined oligonucleotide sequences. *Biochemistry*, 30, 11595-11599.
13. Voigt, J.M. and Topal, M.D. (1995) O6-methylguanine-induced replication blocks. *Carcinogenesis*, 16, 1775-1782.
14. Haracska, L., Prakash, S. and Prakash, L. (2000) Replication past O(6)-methylguanine by yeast and human DNA polymerase ϵ . *Mol Cell Biol*, 20, 8001-8007.
15. Haracska, L., Prakash, L. and Prakash, S. (2002) Role of human DNA polymerase κ as an extender in translesion synthesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 99, 16000-16005.
16. Picher, A.J. and Blanco, L. (2007) Human DNA polymerase λ is a proficient extender of primer ends paired to 7,8-dihydro-8-oxoguanine. *DNA Repair (Amst)*, 6, 1749-1756.
17. Maga, G., Villani, G., Crespan, E., Wimmer, U., Ferrari, E., Bertocci, B. and Hubscher, U. (2007) 8-oxo-guanine bypass by human DNA polymerases in the presence of auxiliary proteins. *Nature*, 447, 606-608.
18. Crespan, E., Hubscher, U. and Maga, G. (2007) Error-free bypass of 2-hydroxyadenine by human DNA polymerase λ with Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen and Replication Protein A in different sequence contexts. *Nucleic Acids Res*, 35, 5173-5181.
19. Crespan, E., Alexandrova, L., Khandazhinskaya, A., Jasko, M., Kukhanova, M., Villani, G., Hubscher, U., Spadari, S. and Maga, G. (2007) Expanding the repertoire of DNA polymerase substrates: template-instructed incorporation of non-nucleoside triphosphate analogues by DNA polymerases β and λ . *Nucleic Acids Res*, 35, 45-57.
20. Crespan, E., Zanolli, S., Khandazhinskaya, A., Shevelev, I., Jasko, M., Alexandrova, L., Kukhanova, M., Blanca, G., Villani, G., Hubscher, U. et al. (2005) Incorporation of non-nucleoside triphosphate analogues opposite to an abasic site by human DNA polymerases β and λ . *Nucleic Acids Res*, 33, 4117-4127.

21. Shevelev, I., Blanca, G., Villani, G., Ramadan, K., Spadari, S., Hubscher, U. and Maga, G. (2003) Mutagenesis of human DNA polymerase lambda: essential roles of Tyr505 and Phe506 for both DNA polymerase and terminal transferase activities. *Nucleic Acids Res*, 31, 6916-6925.
22. Rudinger, N.Z., Kranaster, R. and Marx, A. (2007) Hydrophobic amino acid and single-atom substitutions increase DNA polymerase selectivity. *Chem Biol*, 14, 185-194.
23. Marx, A., Summerer, D., Sauter, K.B., Gloeckner, C. and Rudinger, N.Z. (2007) Chemical biology of DNA polymerases: from selectivity to new functions. *Nucleic Acids Symp Ser (Oxf)*, 81-82.
24. Ramadan, K., Maga, G., Shevelev, I.V., Villani, G., Blanco, L. and Hubscher, U. (2003) Human DNA polymerase lambda possesses terminal deoxyribonucleotidyl transferase activity and can elongate RNA primers: implications for novel functions. *J Mol Biol*, 328, 63-72.
25. Wimmer, U., Ferrari, E., Hunziker, P. and Hubscher, U. (2008) Control of DNA polymerase lambda stability by phosphorylation and ubiquitination during the cell cycle. *EMBO Rep*, 9, 1027-1033.
26. Mojas, N., Lopes, M. and Jiricny, J. (2007) Mismatch repair-dependent processing of methylation damage gives rise to persistent single-stranded gaps in newly replicated DNA. *Genes Dev*, 21, 3342-3355.
27. Maga, G., Crespan, E., Wimmer, U., van Loon, B., Amoroso, A., Mondello, C., Belgiovine, C., Ferrari, E., Locatelli, G., Villani, G. et al. (2008) Replication protein A and proliferating cell nuclear antigen coordinate DNA polymerase selection in 8-oxo-guanine repair. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 105, 20689-20694.
28. Singer, B., Chavez, F., Goodman, M.F., Essigmann, J.M. and Dosanjh, M.K. (1989) Effect of 3' flanking neighbors on kinetics of pairing of dCTP or dTTP opposite O6-methylguanine in a defined primed oligonucleotide when *Escherichia coli* DNA polymerase I is used. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 86, 8271-8274.

Figure Legend

Figure 1. RP-A inhibits the bypass of O-6.mG lesion by DNA polymerase λ .

Experiments were performed as described in Materials and Methods. The template sequence is indicated on top of each panel (A) Single nucleotide incorporation opposite control template by DNA pol λ wt (lanes 2-5). Lane 1: control in the absence of dNTP and lane 6 in the presence of all four dNTPs. (B) As in panel A but opposite O-6mG template. (C) Incorporation opposite O-6.mG by 40nM of DNA pol λ wt of dCTP (lanes 1-4) and dTTP (lanes 6-9) in the absence of (lanes 1 and 6) or in the presence of (lanes 2-4, 7-19) of different amounts of RP-A. Lane 0 and 5 are controls in the absence of dNTPs. (D) Effect of increasing amounts of RP-A on the incorporation of dCTP and dTTP opposite O-6-mG by DNA pol λ wt. (E) As in panel C but in the presence of increasing amounts of PCNA.

Figure 2. DNA synthesis activity by DNA polymerase λ wt and Y505M.

(A) The sequence of human pol λ has been aligned to human pol β , μ and TdT. The tyrosine residue considered in this study is highlighted in the rectangular box and the respective substitution made by site-directed mutagenesis is indicated on the top. Conserved residues are indicated in bold. Multiple sequence alignment of the conserved Tyrosine residue in DNA pol λ from human, monkey, dog, cattle, rat, mouse, chicken, frog and zebra fish are shown on the left side. The conserved tyrosine residue is highlighted in the rectangular box and the conserved residues are indicated in bold. (B) The sequence of the template strand is indicated on top of each panel. Primer extension assays were performed as described in Materials and Methods section the presence of 5' labeled 39/72-mer template. Titration of DNA pol λ wt (lanes 2-5), Y505M (lanes 7-10) in the presence of 10 μ M dNTPs. Lanes 1 and 6: control reactions in the absence of nucleotides. (C) Variation in the initial velocities of the reaction catalyzed by 40nM DNA pol λ wt and Y505M on the undamaged template in the presence of dNTP as a function of the nucleotide substrate. Values are the mean of two independent experiments. Error bars are \pm SD.

Figure 3. Translesion synthesis by DNA polymerase λ wt and Y505M.

The sequences are as indicated on the top of each panel. The experiments were carried out as indicated in Materials and Methods. (A) Single nucleotide incorporation opposite O-6mG damaged template by DNA pol λ wt (lanes 2-5) and Y505M (lanes 7-10) or pol β (lanes 12-15). Lane 1 is control reaction in the absence of dNTPs and lanes 6 and 11 in the presence of all dNTPs. (B) As in panel A, but in the presence of undamaged dG. (C) Variation in the initial velocities of the reaction catalyzed by 40nM DNA pol λ wt and Y505M as a function of the nucleotide substrate concentration. Values are the mean of two independent experiments. Error bars are \pm SD (D) Incorporation of dTTP opposite dG by human DNA pol λ wt (lanes 2-4) and Y505M (lanes 6-8) at the indicated concentration. Lanes 1 and 5 are control reactions in the absence of dTTP. (E) Single nucleotide incorporation opposite the O-6mG lesion template by Y505A.

Figure 4. TLS by pol λ wt and Y505M over 8-oxo-G and 8-oxo-A.

Experiments were performed as described in materials and methods. The template sequence is as indicated on top of each panel. (A) Single nucleotide incorporation opposite 8-oxo-G by pol λ wt (lanes 2-5) and Y505M (lanes 7-10). Lanes 6 and 11 are in the presence of all four dNTP's. (B) Incorporation opposite 8-oxo-A. As in panel A. Lane 1 control reaction in the absence of dNTP's.

Figure 5. The fidelity of 6-O-mG bypass by DNA polymerase λ wt and Y505M is not influenced by the sequence context.

Experiments were performed as described in Materials and Methods. The template sequences are indicated on top of each panel. (A) Relative dCTP incorporation opposite the indicated template by DNA pol λ wt and Y505M at 0.1 μ M and 1 μ M. The product length is indicated on the bottom axis. (B) Relative dTTP incorporation opposite the indicated template by DNA pol λ wt and Y505M at 1 μ M and 10 μ M. The product length is indicated on the bottom axis. (C) Relative dTTP incorporation opposite the template indicated by pol λ wt and Y505M at 0.1 μ M and 1 μ M (D) Relative dTTP incorporation opposite the

indicated template by DNA pol λ wt and Y505M at 1 μ M and 10 μ M. All the values were obtained from 3 independent experiments. Error bars are \pm SD.

Figure 6. RP-A inhibits the error free bypass of O-6-mG lesion by DNA polymerase λ . Experiments were performed as described in Materials and Methods. The template sequence is indicated on top of each panel. (A) Incorporation opposite O-6.mG by 40nM of DNA pol λ Y505M of dCTP (lanes 1-4) and dTTP (lanes 6-9) in the absence of (lanes 1 and 6) or in the presence of (lanes 2-4, 7-9) of different amounts of RP-A. Lane 0 and 5 are controls in the absence of dNTPs. (B) Effect of increasing amounts of RP-A on the incorporation of dCTP and dTTP opposite O-6-mG by DNA pol λ wt. (C) As in panel A but in the presence of increasing amounts of PCNA.

Table 1: Steady state kinetic parameters for nucleotide incorporation on the undamaged template by wt DNA polymerase λ and the Tyr505Met mutant¹

DNA pol λ	dNTP		
	K_m (μ M)	K_{cat} (min^{-1})	K_{cat}/K_m ($\mu\text{M}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$)
wt	0.2122	0.023	0.108
Tyr505Met	0.1409	0.0061	0.043

¹(K_{cat}/K_m) stands for the catalytic efficiency displayed by DNA pol λ wt and the mutant Tyr505Met for the insertion of dNTP.

Table 2: Steady state kinetic parameters for nucleotide incorporation on the O-6-mG template by DNA polymerase λ wt and the Tyr505Met mutant¹

DNA pol λ	dCTP			dTTP		
	K_m (μ M)	K_{cat} (min^{-1})	K_{cat}/K_m ($\mu\text{M}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$)	K_m (μ M)	K_{cat} (min^{-1})	K_{cat}/K_m ($\mu\text{M}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$)
wt	0.18	0.013	0.07	0.04	0.008	0.2
Tyr505Met	0.024	0.015	0.624	n.d. ²	n.d. ²	n.d. ²

¹(K_{cat}/K_m) stands for catalytic activity displayed by DNA pol λ wt and the mutant Tyr505Met for the insertion of the indicated nucleotide.

²n.d. non detectable incorporation of dTTP

Supplementary:

Figure S1A. The fidelity of 6-O-mG bypass by DNA polymerase λ wt and Y505M is not influenced by the sequence context.

Experiments were performed as described in Materials and methods. The template sequence are indicated on top of each panel. (A) Relative dCTP (lanes 2-4) and dTTP (lanes 6-8) incorporation opposite O-6-mG by DNA pol λ wt. dCTP (lanes 10-12) and dTTP (lanes 14-16) incorporation opposite O-6-mG by Y505M. Lanes 1,5,9,13 are control reactions in the absence of dNTPs. (B) Relative dCTP (lanes 18-20) and dTTP (lanes 22-24) incorporation opposite O-6-mG by DNA pol λ wt. dCTP (lanes 26-28) and dTTP (lanes

30-32) incorporation opposite O-6-mG by Y505M. Lanes 17,21,25 and 29 are control reactions in the absence of dNTP's.

Figure S2A. Extension of mismatched primers containing O-6-mG lesion by DNA polymerase λ wt and Y505M.

Experiments were performed as described in Materials and methods. The template sequences are indicated on top of each panel. (A) O-6-mG:C template – dCTP incorporation by DNA pol λ wt (lanes 6-8) and Y505M (lanes 2-4). Lanes 1 and 5 are control reactions in the absence of dCTP. (B) O-6-mG:T template – dCTP incorporation by DNA pol λ wt (lanes 14-16) and Y505M (lanes 10-12). Lanes 9 and 13 are control reactions in the absence of dCTP.

Figure 1

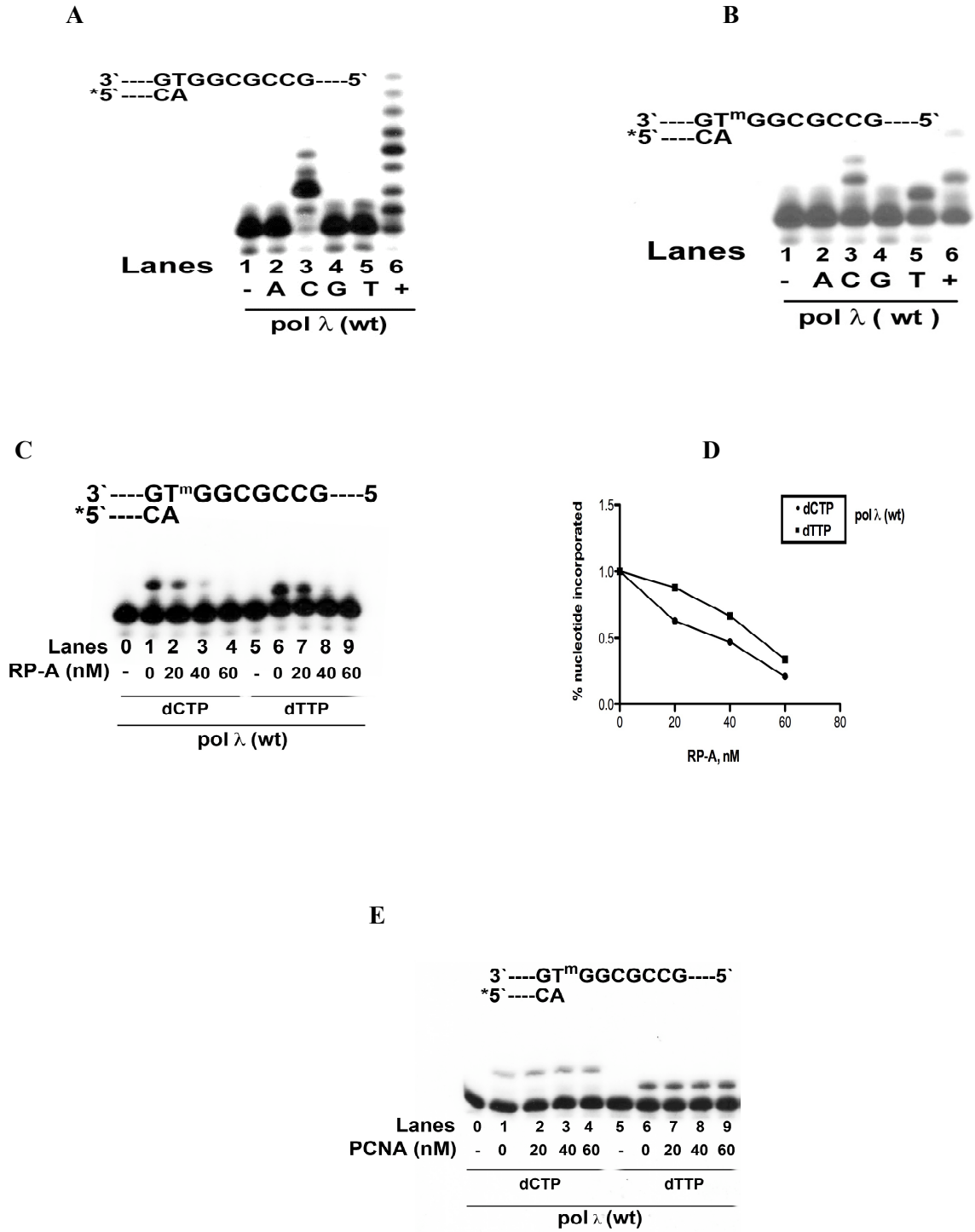
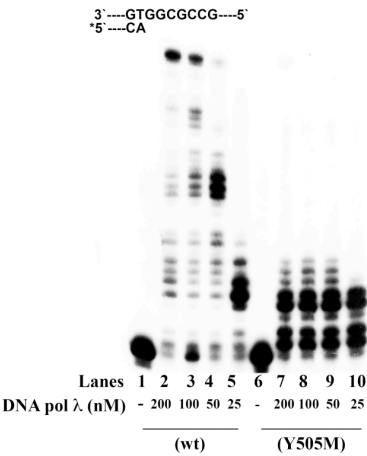


Figure 2

A

Human pol λ 501 C A L L Y F T G S 509
Monkey pol λ 501 C A L L Y F T G S 509
Dog pol λ 511 C A L L Y F T G S 519
Cattle pol λ 501 C A L L Y F T G S 509
Rat pol λ 499 C A L L Y F T G S 507
Mouse pol λ 499 C A L L Y F T G S 507
Chicken pol λ 501 C A L L Y F T G S 509
Frog pol λ 503 C A I M Y F T G S 511
Zebra fish pol λ 493 C A L L Y F T G S 501

B



C

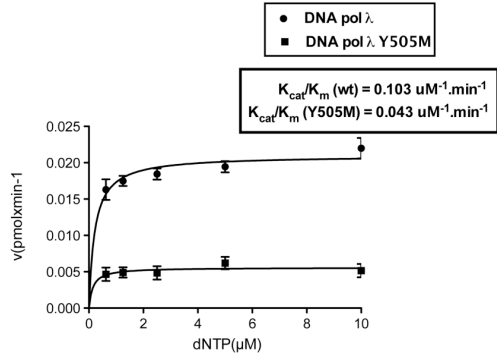


Figure 3

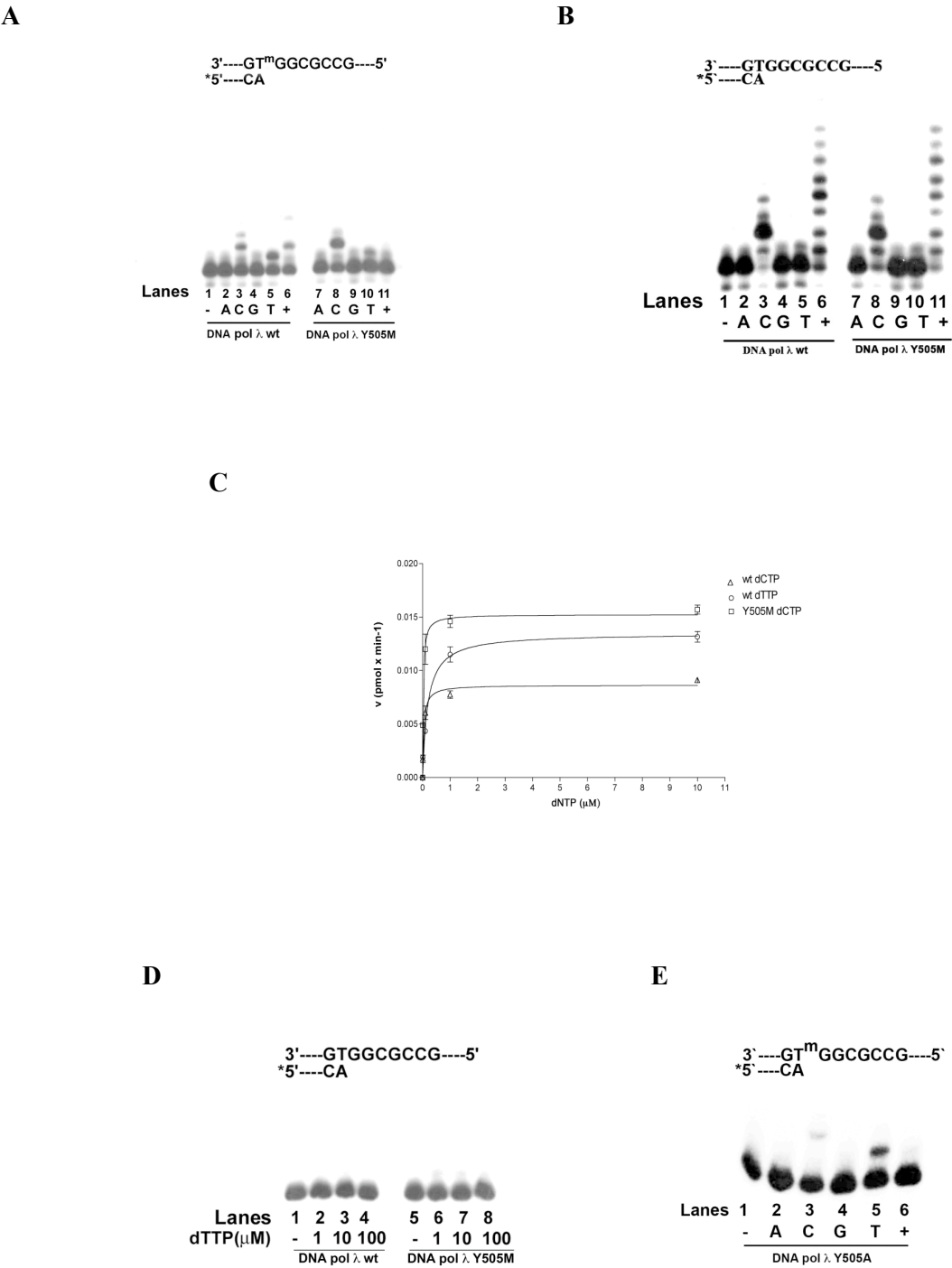
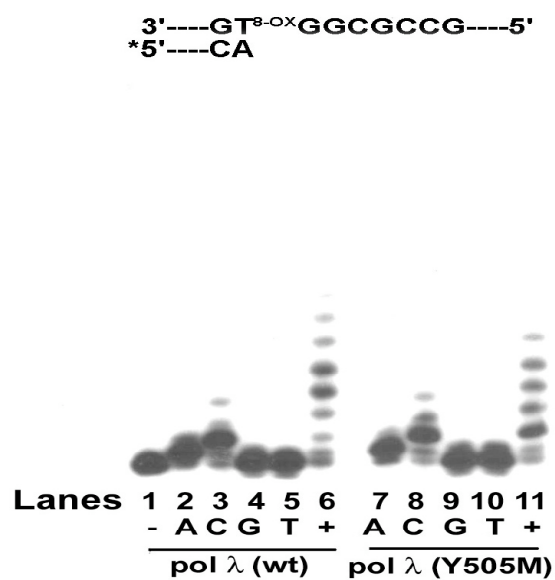


Figure 4

A



B

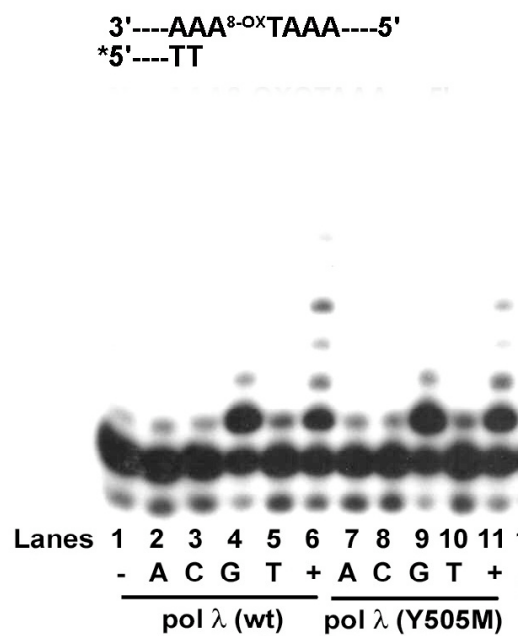


Figure 5

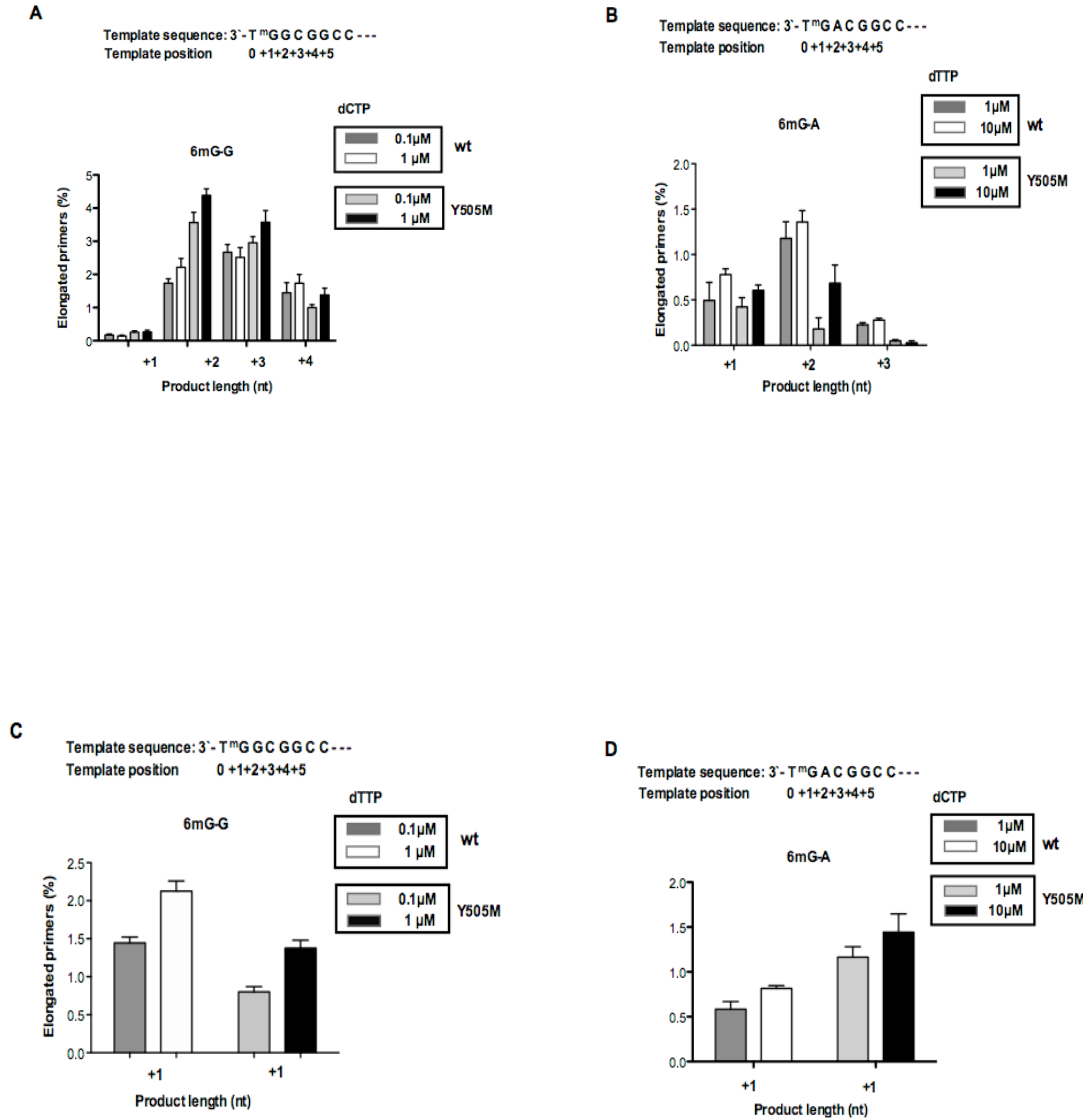


Figure 6

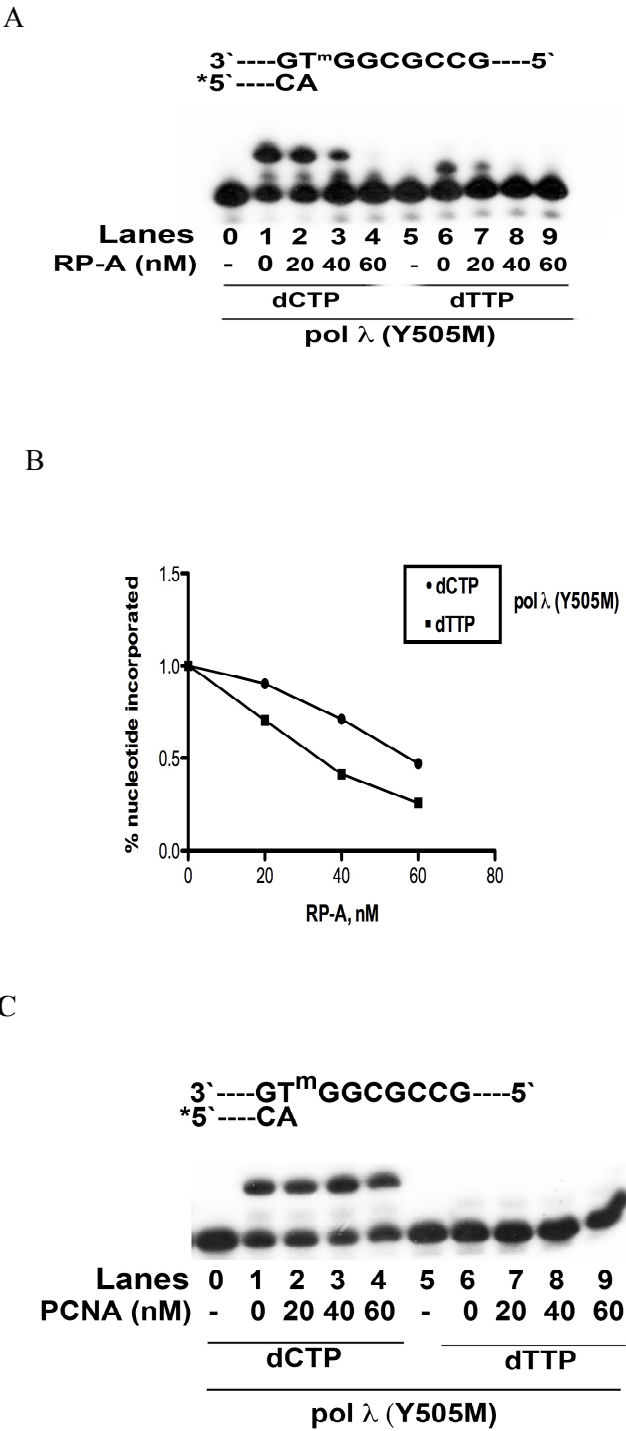


Figure S1A

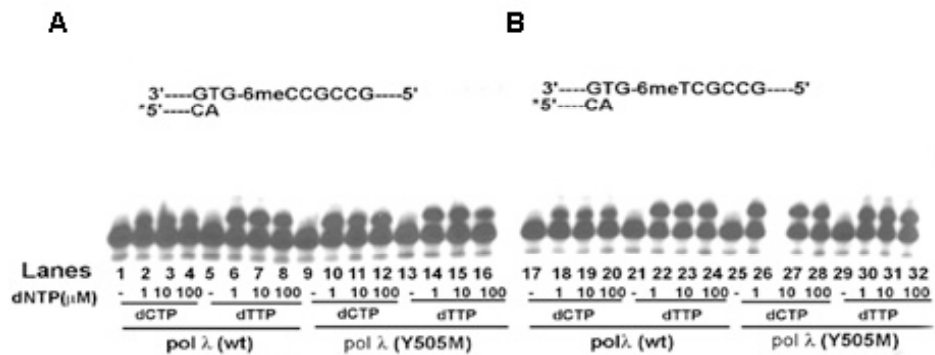
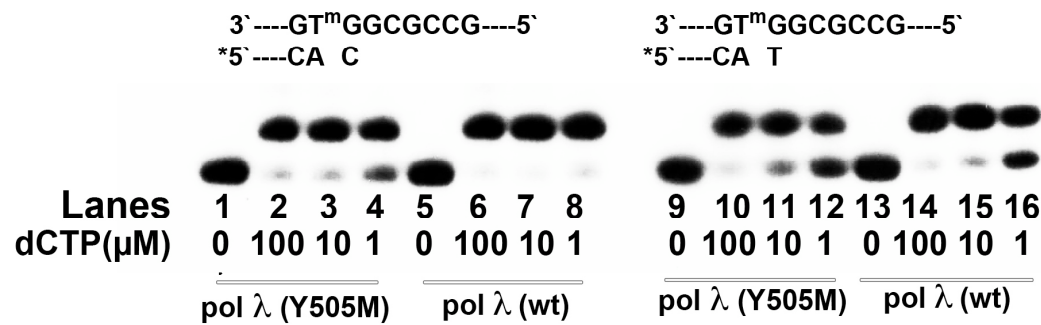


Figure S2A



Part II

AIM

Theories postulate that aging is triggered by cellular accumulation of oxidative DNA damage. Although more than 20 base lesions have been identified, 8-oxo-G is of special interest since it forms the high level of oxidative stress leading to mutations and eventually to cancer. DNA polymerase λ a member of the X family allows for the repair of this lesion via the BER pathway. The Werner syndrome protein (WRN), a member of the RecQ family of helicases, associates with BER proteins. The aim of the second part of the project was to understand a possible functional interplay of DNA polymerase λ and WRN in repair of oxidative damage.

INTRODUCTION

RecQ helicases

RecQ Helicases are one of the major proteins that are involved in maintaining genomic stability. RecQ proteins are highly conserved DNA helicases involved in DNA metabolic processes like DNA recombination, replication, and repair. Five different RecQ helicases have been identified in mammals, including humans. In contrast in *Escherichia coli*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, only one RecQ helicase has been identified. Human RecQ helicases are named RECQ1, Bloom (BLM), Werner (WRN), RECQL4 and RECQL5 (133).

Genetic Disorder of RecQ helicase

Human RecQ helicases results in rare genetic disorders that lead to aging and cancer instability. The Werner syndrome (WS) and Bloom syndrome (BS) are associated with slow growth, abnormal facial features, infertility, and high onset of age-related diseases. WS patients are susceptible to early onset of sarcomas and mesenchymal tumors. BS patients have an early onset towards cancer. Individuals with mutation in the RecQ4 are prone to the Rothmund-Thomson syndrome (RTS). Patients with RTS display growth deficiency, photosensitivity with poikilodermatous skin change, early graying and hair loss, juvenile cataracts and osteogenic sarcomas. This leads to the RAPADILINO or the BALLER-Gerold syndrome. Genetic disorders associated with RecQ1 and RecQ5 mutations, have not been identified so far (134,135).

Properties of the WRN protein

The WRN gene encodes a protein of 1432 amino acids with a molecular weight of 163kDa. WRN contains a 3' → 5' exonuclease domain, an acidic region, a 3' → 5' helicase

domain, a RecQ C-terminal (RQC) domain, a helicase domain, a ribonuclease D C-terminal domain (HRDC) and finally a nuclear localization domain (136,137) (Figure 9).

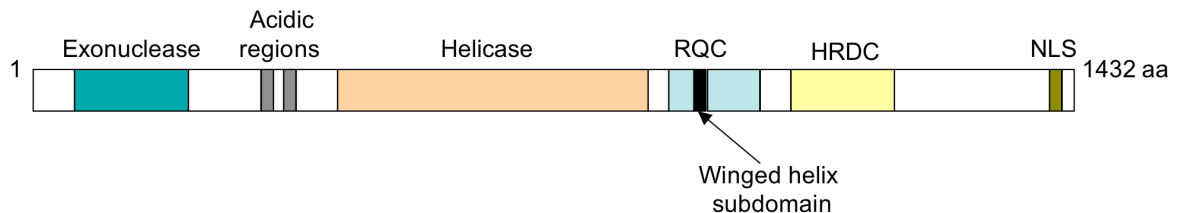


Figure 9. **Domain organization of the WRN protein.** A RQC, RecQ conserved C-terminal domain; HRDC, helicase and RNase D, C-terminal domain; NLS, nuclear localization signal. Reproduced from Bohr.V.A. *Experimental Gerontology*, **42**, 876-878 (2007).

WRN is a DNA structure specific helicase (138,139). The DNA G-quadruplex and triple helix are most preferred along with recombination intermediates like D-loops, holiday junction and three way junctions along with DNA replication structure like bubbles, forks and flaps (140-142). Single substitution mutation at K577M lacks ATPase activity and also the helicase activity. Unlike other RecQ helicase WRN processes a unique 3'→5' exonuclease activity in the N-terminal region, mutation at residue E84A inactivates the exonuclease activity of WRN (143). The exonuclease can preferentially digest dsDNA with a 5' over-hang, and substrates with blunt-ended dsDNA such as replication fork like structures, holiday junctions, or D-loops (144,145). The WRN exonuclease activity is coordinated in a Zn^{2+} dependent manner (146). The human WRN protein is concentrated in the nucleolus, this is in contrast to the mouse WRN which is localized in the nucleoplasm (147). WRN depleted primary fibroblast show retarded S and/or G2/M progression (148). WRN cells are selectively sensitive to the DNA damaging agents 4-nitroquiniline 1-oxide, camptothecin, hydroxy urea and are mildly sensitive to γ irradiation induced DSBs. Therefore it plays a role in DNA repair (149,150). Oxidative DNA lesions are known to accumulate in the H_2O_2 treated diploid WS fibroblasts (151).

Post-translational modifications of the WRN protein

WRN is phosphorylated at serines, threonines, and tyrosines residues when cells are exposed to bleomycin and other replicative stress (152,153). Phosphorylation of Werner is dependent on the ataxia telangiectasia mutant protein (ATM) and the DNA PKc complex. C-Abl, a tyrosine protein kinase is also known to phosphorylate WRN (153). WRN is furthermore sumoylated *in vitro* and *in vivo*, though the functional consequence is yet to be understood (154). In addition to sumoylation, acetylation and tyrosine phosphorylation of WRN in nuclear trafficking (133). Acetylation of WRN by the transcriptional co-activator p300 is likely important in translocation of WRN from the nucleolus to nuclear foci (155,156).

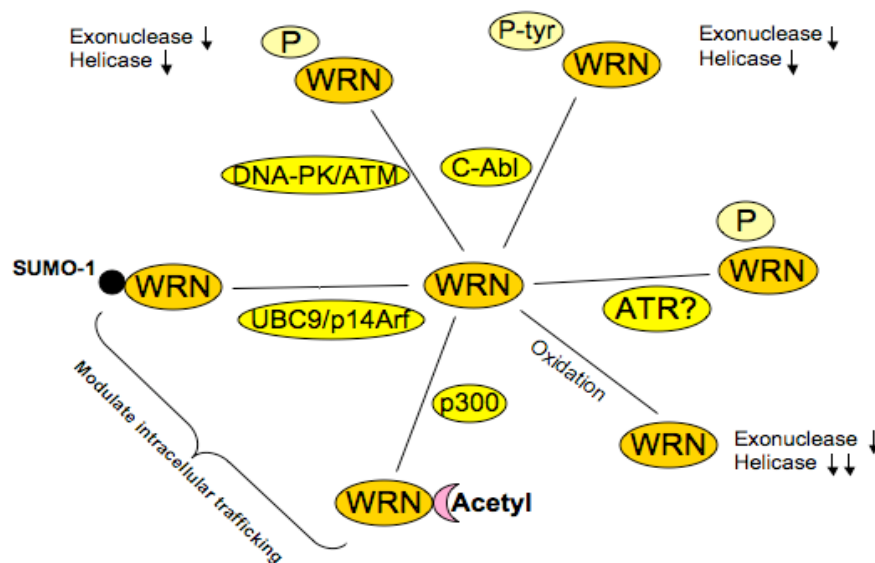


Figure 10. WRN posttranslational modifications. Post translational modification of WRN include: Phosphorylation on Ser/Thr or Tyr, sumoylation, acetylation and oxidation. The mediators and modifiers of WRN post-translational modifications are indicated. Functional effects of posttranslational modification are indicated. Two arrows indicate a stronger reaction than one arrow. Reproduced from Bohr.V.A, Trends in Biochem Sci, **33**, 609-620 (2008).

The BER pathway

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are constantly generated in living organisms. The DNA bases are sensitive to oxidative DNA damage like the 8-oxo-G (157). The 8-oxo-G is a highly mutagenic miscoding lesion that can lead to G:C to T:A transversion mutations (158,159). There are two sub pathways of BER namely short patch (SP)-BER and long patch (LP)-BER. During SP-BER, only a few nucleotides are incorporated in the place of the damaged base; during LP-BER, two to six new nucleotides are incorporated. Specific DNA glycosylase, cleaves the N-glycosyl bond between the sugar and the base, releasing the damaged base to form an abasic site, termed apurinic/apyrimidinic site (160,161). There are several different glycosylase specific for certain lesions. DNA glycosylase are classified as mono- or bifunctional, depending on their reaction mechanisms. Monofunctional glycosylase (having only glycosylase activity) like UNG require another enzyme called the APE1 for the incision of the resulting abasic sugar residue leaving behind a 5'-deoxyribose phosphate (dRP). If the glycosylase is bifunctional having both glycosylase and AP-lyase activity such as OGG1 or NEIL1, then both base excision and an incision 3' to the AP site occurs resulting in a one nucleotide gap that harbors a 3'- α , β -unsaturated aldehyde or 3' phosphate. These one nucleotide gap requires the removal altered 3'-terminal groups prior to polymerization and/or ligation. The 3'-phosphoglycolate groups generated during direct SSBs can also be removed by APE-1 (162,163). After removal of the obstructive terminal or APE1 incision 5' to the AP site replacement of the excised nucleotide is performed by DNA pol β or DNA pol λ as a backup mechanism (164). This enzyme also removes the 5'dRP group left behind by the APE1 incision. If the 5' terminals are refractory to this DNA pol β AP lyase activity, strand displacement synthesis is required for incorporation of multiple nucleotides. During LP-BER several enzymes like PCNA, FEN1, DNA pol β and DNA pol δ/ϵ coordinate to fix the lesion. The final step involves the sealing of the nick by either DNA Ligase I (LP-BER) or DNA Ligase III/ XRCC1 (SP-BER) (165).

Role of the WRN protein in BER

BER is involved in repairing oxidative DNA lesions like the 8-oxoG and formamidopyrimidines (166). Although WRN does not interact with human OGG1 its association with the DNA glycosylase NEIL 1, specific for repair of 8-oxo-G, is the early damage-sensing step of BER (167). Interaction between human apurinic/pyrimidinic (APE1) and WRN inhibits the WRN helicase activity preventing promiscuous unwinding (168). BLM and WRN interact with DNA pol β , stimulating the strand displacement activity and this is independent of the helicase activity of WRN and BLM (155,169,170). WRN efficiently stimulates FEN-1 cleavage, on a flap DNA structure, an intermediate generated during BER and branch-migrating double-flap substrates generating during replication (171). WRN deficiency leads to hyperactivation and rapid premature accumulation of protein carbonyls. High levels of oxidative stress and oxidative DNA damage correlates with increased risk of sarcomas (172). Although WRN is not considered to be directly involved in BER, an important role for WRN in BER is supported by the finding WRN-deficient cells accumulate 8-oxo-G (151).

WRN interacting proteins for a variety of DNA transactions:

WRN helicase interacts with several protein in DSBR. RAD51, a key player in the strand invasion event during HR, interact with WRN (173). RAD52 inhibits and enhances WRN helicase activity in a DNA structure dependent manner, whereas WRN increases the efficiency of RAD52-mediated strand annealing (174). RAD54, another key protein, co-localizes with WRN in response to replicative stress (175). WRN also associates with the MRE11-RAD50-NBS1 complex via NBS1 and BRCA1 (176,177). BRCA1 stimulates the helicase activity of WRN. WRN is also known to participate in NHEJ since it interacts with Ku70-Ku80 heterodimer, a primary mediator of NHEJ and with DNA-dependent protein kinase (DNA PK) (152). WRN plays a role in MMR pathways, by removing mismatched nucleotide incorporation by a DNA pol during replication or DNA repair. WRN stimulates the extension activity of DNA pol δ and the family Y translesion DNA pols like η , ι and κ

over a lesion free and a lesion DNA template. It is also known that the WRN exonuclease fails to bypass certain DNA lesions like 8-oxo-G (145,178,179). WRN moreover interacts physically and functionally with several key proteins involved in replication, especially with RP-A, which stimulates the helicase activity (180,181). PCNA is also another key factor in replication interacting with WRN (180). Chromatin assembly factor-1 and WRN are both involved in the maintenance of genome stability (182). In response to DNA-damaging signals, both these proteins relocate to sites where DNA synthesis occurs. The WRN syndrome protein is required for recruitment of chromatin assembly factor 1 following DNA damage (182). Furthermore WRN deficiency is associated with defect in telomere maintenance. Studies show that WRN is associated with TRF1 and TRF2, both components of the shelterin complex (183). POT1 (protection of telomerase 1) is an ssDNA-binding protein that binds with high affinity to telomere repeats and strongly stimulates WRN helicase activity (183-185). The carboxyl-terminal part of WRN and the extreme carboxyl terminus of p53 can in turn be a region that plays an important role in regulating the functional state of p53. A cross talk between p53 and WRN helps preventing the accumulation of aberrations that give rise to premature senescence leading to cancer (186). WRN also interacts with exonuclease 1 (EXO-1) aviating the exonucleolytic and endonucleolytic incision function of EXO-1 (187).

7,8-dihydro-8-oxo-guanine and DNA polymerase λ

ROS (Reactive oxygen species) are generated by normal cellular metabolism and by exogenous agents. It is known that not all but most of the DNA lesions repaired by BER are products of ROS attack. There are up to 10^3 to 10^4 lesions generated per cell per day, the most common being, 8-oxo-G (188). 8-oxo-G is a highly mutagenic miscoding lesion that can lead to G:C to T:A transversion mutations. 8-oxo-G retains the ability to engage in correct Watson-crick base pairs with C, but oxidation of G (at C8) converts a hydrogen bond acceptor (N7) to a hydrogen bond donor, allowing a stable Hoogsteen base pair to form between 8-oxo-G and A, which is not possible in undamaged DNA (189) (Figure 11).

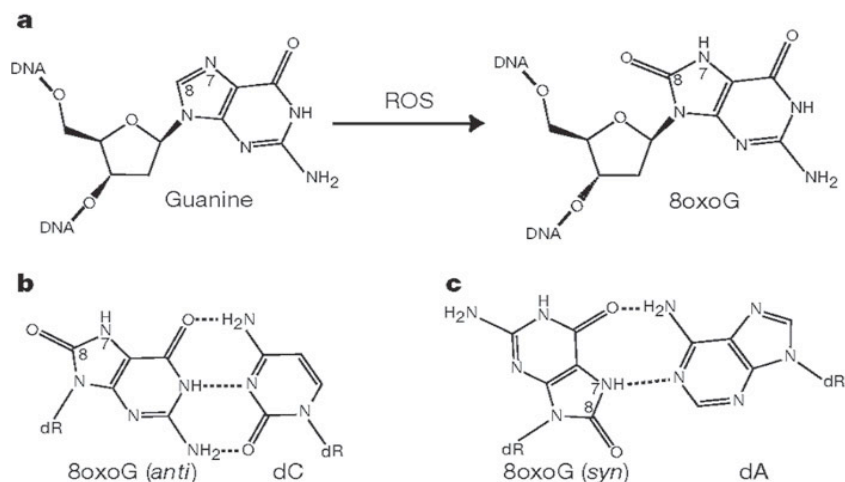


Figure 11. Models of base pairing for 8-oxo-G a.) Oxidation of guanine at C8 by reactive oxygen species (ROS). b.) 8-oxo-G in a Watson-Crick base pair with dC. dashed lines indicate potential hydrogen bonds. c.) 8-oxo-G (syn) in a Hoogsteen base pair with dA (anti). Reproduced from Hsu, G.W, *Nature*, **431**, 217-22(2004).

The BER pathway is the primary mechanism for the repair of oxidative base damage, such as 8-oxo-G and formamidopyrimidine. BER has alternative pathways depending on the damage and the responsive enzymes. The presence of 8-oxo-G on the replicative strand can lead to frequent misincorporation of A opposite 8-oxo-G by human replicative DNA pols like δ , ϵ and α at a higher frequency of 10-75%. Two different sub pathways of BER assure the complete repair of 8-oxo-G, when C:8-oxo-G mispair is detected on the transcribing strand, OOG1 dependent BER pathway is activated, leaving behind a lesion free intact DNA. This DNA strand then acts as a transcribing template. When A:8-oxo-G base pair is encountered; a MUTYH dependent pathway is stimulated, allowing for the removal of adenine. Finally, a key role of MUTYH and DNA pol λ in the repair of 8-oxo-G repair was recently shown by van Loon and Hübscher. DNA pol λ null mouse fibroblasts are known to be hypersensitive to oxidative DNA damaging agents, suggesting a vital role of DNA pol λ in protecting the cells against the cytotoxic effects of oxidative DNA damage (44). Auxiliary factors have known to play an important role in lesion bypass. PCNA and RP-A allowed correct incorporation of dCTP, opposite an 8-oxo-G template 1,200-fold more efficiently than the incorrect dATP by DNA pol λ and 68 fold by DNA pol η (43).

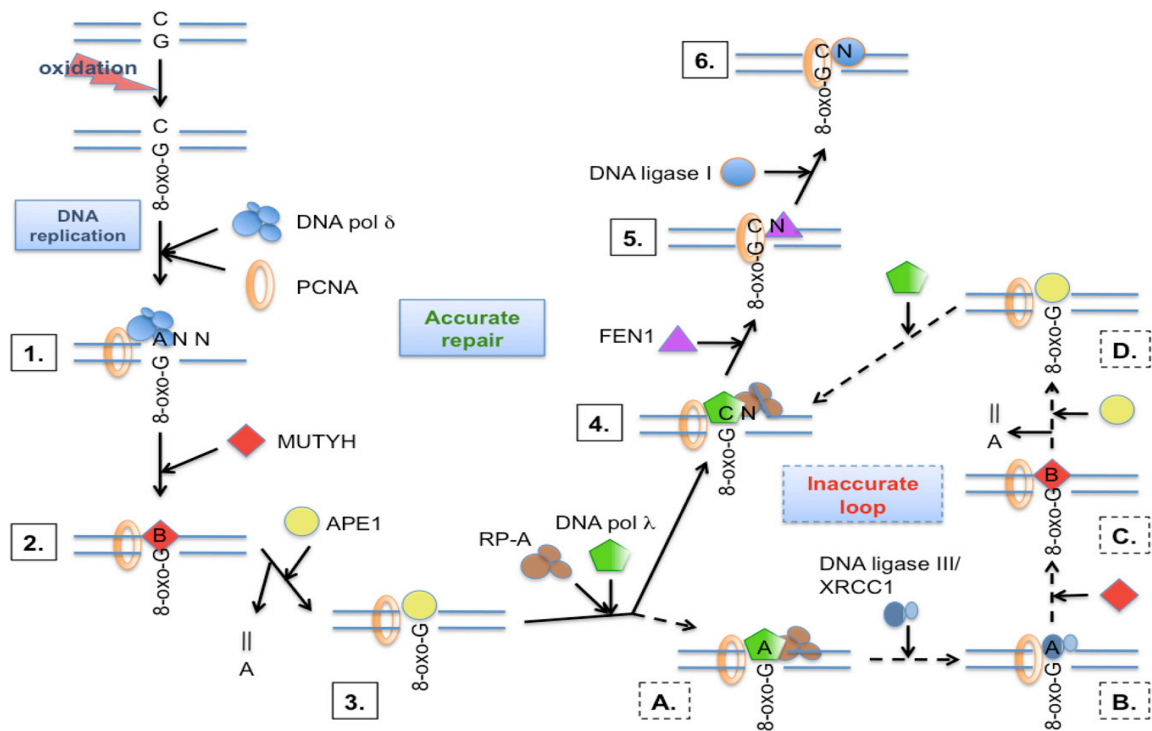


Figure 12. Model for MUTYH initiated long patch BER of 8-oxo-G after misincorporation by the replication machinery. 1.) DNA replication over an 8-oxo-G by DNA pol δ. 2.) recognition of an A:8-oxo-G mispair by MUTYH, removal of the A and formation of an AP site (denoted as B) 3.) Recruitment of APE1 mediated by MUTYH/PCNA and generation of 5'-P, 3'-OH gapped intermediate. 4.) Protection of 1-nt gap by RP-A and PCNA mediated recruitment of DNA pol λ, with accurate gap filling (dCTP incorporation) 5.) PCNA mediated recruitment of FEN1 and removal of 1-nt flap. 6.) Ligation of the nick by recruited DNA Ligase I and further faithful OGG1 initiated DNA pol β mediated SP-BER of C:8-oxo-G product. Alternatively an inaccurate loop is initiated: (A) DNA pol λ catalyzes inaccurate gap filling. (B) recruitment of DNA Ligase III/XRCC1 mediated by PCNA and ligation of the nick. (C) Recognition of A:8-oxo-G mispair by MUTYH, remove of A and generation of APE1 mediated by MUTYH/PCNA, generation of 5'-P, 3'-OH gapped intermediate. This creates an opportunity for DNA pol λ to catalyze accurate LP-BER. Reproduced from van Loon, B and Hübscher, U, PNAS, **106**, 18201-18206 (2009).

PAPER II

Werner syndrome protein and DNA polymerase λ cooperate in the repair of oxidative DNA damage

Prasanna Parasuraman^{1,2+}, Radhakrishnan Kanagaraj²⁺, Boris Mihaljevic², Vilhelm A. Bohr³, Pavel Jancsak^{2*}, Ulrich Hübscher^{1*}

¹Institute of Veterinary Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse 190, CH-8057 Zurich, Switzerland

²Institute of Molecular Cancer Research, University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse 190, CH-8057 Zurich, Switzerland

³Laboratory of Molecular Gerontology, National Institute on Aging, NIH, Baltimore, MD 1224, USA

* Joint responsible authors to whom correspondence can be addressed:

Ulrich Hübscher

Tel.: +41-44-635 5472

Fax.: +41-44-635 6840

E-mail: hubscher@vetbio.uzh.ch

Pavel Jancsak

Tel. +41-44-635 3470

Fax. +41-44-635 3484

E-mail: pjancsak@imcr.uzh.ch

Running title: Interaction between WRN and DNA pol λ

⁺These authors contributed equally to this work

Abstract

Aging is associated with accumulation of DNA damage and increased incidence of cancer. Reactive oxygen species, constantly generated as by-products of cellular metabolism or from exogenous sources, readily attack genomic DNA generating mutagenic DNA lesions such as 7,8-dihydro-8-oxo-guanine (8-oxo-G), a major contributor to the ageing process. Here, we show that the Werner syndrome helicase (WRN), whose deficiency is associated with premature aging and cancer susceptibility, is specifically recruited to a DNA duplex containing an 8-oxo-G:A mispair in a manner dependent on DNA polymerase λ (DNA pol λ), which catalyzes accurate translesion synthesis over 8-oxo-G. Moreover, we demonstrate that WRN physically interacts with DNA pol λ and enhances its primer extension activity with a preference for DNA templates containing an 8-oxo-G. Experiments *in vivo* reveal that WRN and DNA pol λ colocalize at sites of 8-oxo-G lesions induced by H₂O₂. In addition, we have found that re-localization of WRN to 8-oxo-G lesions is dependent upon DNA pol λ . We propose that WRN facilitates the bypass of 8-oxo-G lesions by DNA pol λ during repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs, thus preventing GC to AT transversions which might lead to cancer and premature aging.

Introduction

Reactive oxygen species (ROS), that are constantly produced in living organisms as byproducts of normal cellular metabolism or as a consequence of environmental exposure to various physical and chemical agents, can generate a variety of oxidized DNA bases that are highly mutagenic and hence compromise genomic stability and promote carcinogenesis {Valko, 2004 #17; Klaunig, 2004 #18; Klaunig, #19}. One of the most frequent oxidative lesions is 7,8-dihydro-8-oxo-guanine (8-oxo-G) with a steady-state level of 4-10 lesions per 10⁶ DNA bases in normal human tissue {Collins, 1999 #1; Dizdaroglu, 2002 #3}. Replication of genomic DNA containing 8-oxo-G lesions frequently leads to the formation of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs giving raise to a G:C to A:T transversion mutations {Avkin, 2002

#2}. Interestingly, these transversions are the most predominant somatic mutations found in lung, breast, ovarian, gastric and colorectal cancers, suggesting that a failure to eliminate 8-oxo-G lesions can initiate tumorigenesis and drive tumor progression {Greenman, 2007 #20}.

Oxidized base lesions are primarily eliminated by base excision repair (BER) {Hazra, 2007 #26}. In mammalian cells, the repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs is achieved *via* two BER events that occur sequentially on the two DNA strands (reviewed in {van Loon, #21}). The first event is initiated by excision of the mispaired A residue by the MutY glycosylase homologue (MUTYH) in a reaction coordinated by PCNA {Takao, 1999 #22; Hayashi, 2002 #23; van Loon, 2009 #7}. This is followed by cleavage of the apurinic site (AP) by the AP endonuclease 1 (APE1) resulting in a DNA intermediate containing a one-nucleotide gap with a 3'-OH moiety {Yang, 2001 #24; van Loon, 2009 #7}. PCNA and RPA then govern the bypass of the 8-oxo-G lesion by the DNA polymerase (pol) λ , which in the presence of these two auxiliary factors preferentially incorporates dCMP opposite the lesion {Maga, 2007 #6; Maga, 2008 #25; van Loon, 2009 #7}. Following lesion bypass, RPA dissociates and PCNA (by binding to FEN1) allows removal of the 5'-single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) flap resulting from the strand displacement synthesis by DNA pol λ {van Loon, 2009 #7}. Finally, DNA ligase I interacts with PCNA loaded on the nick arising from FEN1 cleavage and seals it, creating the substrate for a second BER event, which leads to the elimination of the 8-oxo-G lesion {van Loon, 2009 #7}. 8-oxo-G paired with C is predominantly excised by the OGG1 glycosylase in a short patch BER reaction in which DNA pol β fills the one nucleotide gap opposite the lesion and the DNA ligase III/XRCC1 complex finally seals the nick {Hazra, 2007 #26}. However, repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs in extracts from *Ogg1*^{-/-} mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) has been found to proceed with a similar efficiency as in wild-type cell extract, suggesting that 8-oxo-G in this two-step BER pathway might be excised by enzymes other than OGG1 {Dantzer, 2003 #27}.

In the recent past, a number proteins acting in BER, such as NEIL1 {Das, 2007 #15}, APE1 {Ahn, 2004 #8}, DNA pol β {Harrigan, 2003 #9; Harrigan, 2006 #10}, FEN1 {Brosh, 2001 #11}, PCNA {Rodriguez-Lopez, 2003 #12} and RPA {Brosh, 1999 #33}

have been shown to interact physically and functionally with the WRN helicase/exonuclease, which is mutated in Werner syndrome (WS), an autosomal recessive disorder characterized by premature aging, cancer predisposition and genomic instability {Rossi, #16}. Interestingly, WRN-deficient cells accumulate 8-oxo-G lesions at a much higher rate than WRN-proficient cells, suggesting that WRN plays a role in the cellular response to oxidative stress {Das, 2007 #15}. In this work we have considered the possibility that WRN might act in the repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs. By using human cell extracts, we show that WRN is specifically recruited to a DNA duplex containing an 8-oxo-G:A mispair in a manner dependent on DNA pol λ . Moreover, WRN forms a complex with DNA pol λ through direct binding to its pol X core domain and stimulates the bypass of 8-oxo-G lesions by DNA pol λ . At the cellular level, WRN and DNA pol λ colocalize at sites of 8-oxo-G lesions in response to H₂O₂ treatment. Most importantly, WRN is recruited to sites of 8-oxo-G lesions only in the presence of DNA pol λ in the cell. These findings provide a strong evidence for a role of WRN in the repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs in mammalian cells.

Results

WRN is Specifically Recruited to DNA Containing an 8-oxo-G:A Mismatch in a Manner Dependent on DNA Polymerase λ . To explore the role for WRN in the repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs, we employed a reversible cross-linking assay established previously to monitor the recruitment of BER proteins to damaged DNA {Parsons, 2004 #44}. A 3'-biotinylated hairpin loop oligoduplex (27 bp) containing a single 8-oxo-G:A mismatch and the corresponding lesion-free substrate {van Loon, 2009 #7} were incubated with HeLa whole cell extract in the presence of a cross-linking agent and Mg²⁺. At different time points, cross-linked DNA-protein complexes were isolated using streptavidin beads, and after reversing the cross-links, bound proteins were analyzed by Western blotting. We observed a rapid, damage-specific recruitment of WRN to the DNA substrate (Fig. 1A). A robust damage-specific recruitment of DNA pol λ was also detected as previously reported

{van Loon, 2009 #7}. These results provide a strong evidence for the involvement of WRN in the repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs.

To address the possibility that DNA pol λ was required for the recruitment of WRN to the 8-oxo-G:A-containing DNA substrate, whole cell extracts from pol $\lambda^{-/-}$ and pol $\lambda^{+/+}$ mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were subjected to the crosslinking assay. We found that in the absence of DNA pol λ , the binding of WRN to the 8-oxo-G:A substrate was impaired, suggesting that DNA pol λ recruits WRN to the sites of 8-oxo-G:A repair (Fig. 1B).

WRN and DNA Polymerase λ Interact Physically *in Vivo* and *in Vitro*. To examine whether WRN and DNA pol λ interact physically, an extract of HEK293T cells expressing Myc-tagged DNA pol λ was subjected to immunoprecipitation with anti-WRN antibody. We found that DNA pol λ co-immunoprecipitated with WRN in this experiment (Fig. 2A, lanes 3-4). In contrast, neither DNA pol λ nor WRN were detected in the immunoprecipitate obtained with control IgG (Fig. 2A). Interestingly, the level of WRN-DNA pol λ complex detected in the extract from cells treated with H_2O_2 was slightly higher than that in the extract from non-treated cells (Fig. 2A, compare lanes 3 and 4), suggesting that the formation of this complex might be stimulated by oxidative DNA damage.

To examine whether WRN and DNA pol λ interact directly, we performed a co-immunoprecipitation experiment with a mixture of purified recombinant proteins. We found that WRN and DNA pol λ co-precipitated with anti-WRN antibody, but not with control IgG, indicating a direct interaction between these proteins (Fig. 2B). In order to quantify the affinity of this interaction, surface plasmon resonance measurements on a BIAcore 3000 were carried out. Increasing concentrations of DNA pol λ ranging from 0 nM to 500 nM, were passed through a biosensor chip coated with WRN (Fig. 2C). Evaluation of association and dissociation curves gave an apparent dissociation constant of 0.4 nM, indicating a strong binding.

Next, we used a GST pull-down assay to map the region of WRN binding to DNA pol λ . DNA pol λ bound well to GST-WRN₉₄₉₋₁₄₃₂ and GST-WRN₅₀₀₋₉₄₆, but not to GST-WRN₅₁₋₄₉₉ or to GST alone (Fig. 2E). These results indicated that DNA pol λ interacted with the helicase domain of WRN (amino acids 500-946) as well as with the C-terminal region of WRN, which contains winged-helix domain, a binding site of a number of other proteins shown to interact with WRN (reviewed in {Lee, 2005 #29}). In order to map the WRN-binding site on DNA pol λ , co-immunoprecipitation experiments were performed with different deletion variants of DNA pol λ (Fig. 2D). A stable interaction of WRN with DNA pol $\lambda_{244-575}$, but not with DNA pol λ_{1-132} and DNA pol $\lambda_{133-244}$ was observed, suggesting that WRN binds to the catalytic core domain of DNA pol λ (Fig. 2D).

WRN Enhances the Bypass of 8-oxo-G Lesions by DNA Polymerase λ . In order to gain insight into the role of WRN in the repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs, we next evaluated the effect of WRN on the extension by DNA pol λ of a 39-nt primer annealed to a 72-nt template containing an 8-oxo-G lesion at the +1 position. WRN exerted a robust stimulatory effect on primer extension by DNA pol λ in a reaction being more efficient on 8-oxo-G template than on a lesion-free template (Fig. 3A and B, lanes 2-6). In contrast, stimulation of DNA pol λ was not observed with other RecQ helicases such as BLM and RECQ5, suggesting that the observed stimulation was specific for WRN (Fig. 3A and B, lanes 2, 7 and 8). Single nucleotide incorporation experiment confirmed that WRN facilitated bypass of the 8-oxo-G lesion by DNA pol λ enhancing the incorporation of both dCMP and dAMP opposite the lesion (Fig. 3C, lanes 10-18). On the lesion-free template, DNA pol λ incorporated only dCMP in the presence of WRN as it did in its absence, indicating that WRN does not affect the inherent fidelity of DNA pol λ (Fig. 3C, lanes 1-9). To test the specificity of the stimulatory effect of WRN on the primer extension by DNA pol λ over 8-oxo-G, four other lesions were tested: an apurinic site, a 4-methylthymine, a 6-methylguanine and a cis-platinum adduct. WRN did not stimulate the bypass of these lesions by DNA pol λ suggesting that the observed effect over 8-oxo-G is specific (Supplementary Fig. S1).

To address whether the enzymatic activities of WRN are required for the observed stimulation of DNA pol λ , we used previously established mutants of WRN defective either in the exonuclease (E84A) or in the helicase (K577M) activity {Huang, 1998 #35; Gray, 1997 #34}. Both mutants stimulated primer extension by DNA pol λ to the same extent as the wild-type WRN on both 8-oxo-G and lesion-free templates (Fig. 3D), suggesting that the observed stimulatory effect is due to the physical interaction between DNA pol λ and WRN and is not dependent on WRN catalytical activities.

WRN and DNA Polymerase λ Colocalize at Sites of Oxidative DNA Damage. To evaluate the response of WRN and DNA pol λ to oxidative DNA damage *in vivo*, we used the indirect immunofluorescence technique to study the spatial distribution of these proteins in U2OS cells after H₂O₂ treatment. In agreement with previous reports, WRN was observed to localize to the nucleolus in the majority of non-treated cells, whereas DNA pol λ showed a dispersed nuclear staining (Fig. 4A, *top row*). Upon treatment with 500 μ M H₂O₂ for two hours, WRN and DNA pol λ each formed >10 distinct foci per nucleus in 45% and 65% of cells, respectively. Approximately in 30% of cells, WRN foci showed complete co-localization with DNA pol λ foci. In the remaining cells, a partial co-localization between WRN and DNA pol λ was observed. It is known that H₂O₂ causes not only oxidative base damages, but also single-strand and double-strand DNA breaks {Benitez-Bribiesca, 1999 #28}. Therefore it is possible that the foci of WRN and DNA pol λ that did not colocalize represent sites of other types of DNA damage.

In order to support that WRN and DNA pol λ co-localize at sites of oxidative damage, untreated and H₂O₂-treated cells were co-immunostained either for visualization of WRN and 8-oxo-G or for visualization of DNA pol λ and 8-oxo-G. The results indicated that WRN and DNA pol λ co-localized with the sites 8-oxo-G damage in ~40% and ~50% of cells, respectively (Fig. 4B). Collectively, these results provide evidence that WRN and DNA pol λ operate in the repair of 8-oxo-G lesions in human cells.

DNA Polymerase λ is Required for WRN Recruitment to Sites of 8-oxo-G Lesions *in Vivo*. To further explore the function of WRN and DNA pol λ in the cellular response to oxidative DNA damage, WRN was down-regulated in U2OS cells by RNA interference and cells were subjected to immunofluorescence staining for DNA pol λ and 8-oxo-G prior to and after H_2O_2 treatment. We found that WRN depletion did not abolish the accumulation of DNA pol λ at sites of 8-oxo-G lesions (Fig. 5A). A small increase of DNA pol λ foci was observed in WRN-deficient cells relative to WRN-proficient cells even in absence of H_2O_2 (Fig. 5B). This might be due to the elevated level of spontaneous oxidative DNA damage previously observed in WRN deficient cells {Von Kobbe, 2004 #14}.

Finally, we compared by immunofluorescence the response of WRN to oxidative stress in DNA pol $\lambda^{+/+}$ and DNA pol $\lambda^{-/-}$ MEFs. The results demonstrated that genetic ablation of DNA pol λ impaired the recruitment of WRN to sites of 8-oxo-G lesions (Fig. 5B). Interestingly, in DNA pol $\lambda^{-/-}$ MEFs, WRN formed numerous foci in response to H_2O_2 treatment (data not shown). These most probably represent sites of DNA double-strand breaks resulting from processing of oxidative DNA damage. Collectively, our data indicate that DNA pol λ is required for the re-localization of WRN to sites of 8-oxo-G lesions.

Discussion

The replicative DNA polymerases α , δ and ϵ have strong tendency to incorporate an A opposite an 8-oxo-G leading to a Hoogsteen base pair, which can give rise to GC to AT transversion (reviewed in {Hubscher, 2010 #45}). Recent studies in our laboratory have advanced the understanding of the molecular mechanism underlying the repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs in mammalian cells {Maga, 2007 #6; Maga, 2008 #25; van Loon, 2009 #7}. Cross-linking experiments with human cell extracts and model DNA substrates have revealed that MUTYH, DNA pol λ , PCNA, RPA, FEN1 and DNA ligases I or III are involved in the excision of the mispaired A nucleotide and its replacement with a dCMP {van Loon, 2009 #7}, a BER reaction, which has to take place prior to the removal of the 8-

oxo-G lesion by the 8-oxo guanine DNA glycosylase (OGG1) (reviewed in {van Loon, 2010 #21}). Here we provide evidence that the WRN protein participates in this process by serving as an additional auxiliary factor that promotes the bypass of the 8-oxo-G lesion by DNA pol λ . We show that WRN physically interacts with DNA pol λ and accumulates at sites of 8-oxo-G lesions in a DNA pol λ -dependent manner, suggesting that DNA pol λ recruits WRN to the sites 8-oxo-G:A repair. Interestingly, previous studies have shown that WRN physically interacts with FEN1 and strongly stimulates FEN1-catalyzed cleavage of 5' flap substrates {Brosh, 2001 #11}. This activity is essential to generate a ligatable 3'-OH end following strand-displacement synthesis by DNA pol λ during the repair of 8-oxo-G:A mispairs {van Loon, 2009 #7}. Thus, it is possible that, in addition to DNA pol λ stimulation, WRN promotes the endonucleolytic cleavage by FEN1 in this BER pathway.

Our study has shown that the helicase and exonuclease activities of WRN are dispensable for DNA pol λ stimulation by WRN. Similarly, the functional interaction of WRN with FEN1 was independent of the WRN catalytic functions {Brosh, 2001 #11}. These findings suggested that the stimulatory effect of WRN on these enzymes stems from direct protein interaction. It is possible that physical interaction between WRN and DNA pol λ triggers a conformational change in the polymerase, which alters its catalytic properties. Interestingly, the domain of WRN that mediates the functional interaction between WRN and FEN1 resides within the C-terminal portion of WRN that also mediates interaction with DNA pol λ {Brosh, 2001 #11}. It will be interesting to examine whether this domain, referred to as winged-helix domain, plays a role in the stimulatory effect of WRN on DNA pol λ .

Like WRN, PCNA has also been found to interact with the catalytic domain of DNA pol λ and enhance its primer extension activity on lesion-free and 8-oxo-G-containing DNA templates. {Shimazaki, 2002 #42; Maga, 2002 #38; Maga, 2007 #6}. However, the mechanism of PCNA action seems to differ from that of WRN. PCNA was found to increase the processivity of DNA pol λ possibly by stabilizing its binding to the template/primer junction {Maga, 2002 #38}. In contrast, WRN appears to enhance the catalytic activity of DNA pol λ in general and its translesion DNA synthesis in particular.

WRN, however, stimulated the incorporation of both dCMP and dAMP opposite the 8-oxo-G lesion to a similar degree. In contrast, PCNA was found to increase the incorporation rates of dCMP opposite an 8-oxo-G, but not of dAMP incorporation opposite the lesion. The faithful incorporation of dCTP was enhanced about 100 times when the optimal concentrations of PCNA and RPA were used either in a standing start primer extension over 8-oxo-G {Maga, 2007 #6} or by repairing a one nucleotide gap containing an 8-oxo-G {Maga, 2008 #25}. A similar selectivity by DNA pol λ in the presence of PCNA and RPA was also found when the MUTYH DNA glycosylase and APE1 removed an incorrect A incorporated by DNA pol δ {van Loon, 2009 #7}. In a next step, it will be interesting to explore the role of WRN in the reconstituted 8-oxo-G:A repair system recently established in our laboratory {van Loon, 2009 #7}.

It was reported that WRN could also stimulate DNA synthesis by the human DNA pol δ {Kamath-Loeb, 2000 #39} and by the Y-family translesion (TLS) pols η , ι and κ , whereas it did not affect the synthesis by DNA pols α , β and ϵ {Kamath-Loeb, 2007 #40}. As in the case of DNA pol λ , the stimulation of Y-family DNA pols was found to be specific to WRN since no stimulation was observed with other RecQ family members such as BLM or *E. coli* RecQ {Kamath-Loeb, 2007 #40}. WRN could also promote lesion bypass by TLS pols in a manner dependent on type of lesion. For example, addition of WRN to limiting amounts of DNA pol η stimulated primer extension activity on templates containing a cyclobutane pyrimidine dimer (CPD) or an 8-oxo-G, whereas only limited lesion bypass of methyl adducts was observed with DNA pol η {Kamath-Loeb, 2007 #40}. Similarly, we found that WRN stimulated DNA pol λ to bypass 8-oxo-G, but not an apurinic site, 4-methylthymine, 6-methylguanine and cisplatin. Most importantly, the extension activity of DNA pol η on CPD- and 8-oxo-G-containing templates was comparable with that observed on lesion-free DNA template. In contrast, we found that WRN increased primer extension activity of DNA pol λ on 8-oxo-G template more efficiently than on lesion-free template, suggesting a specific interaction of WRN with DNA pol λ during the 8-oxo-G during lesion bypass.

WRN deficiency has been found to be associated with a defect in cell proliferation arrest in response to oxidative stress and with accumulation of 8-oxo-G and Fapy-G lesions in the genomic DNA {Von Kobbe, 2004 #14; Das, 2007 #15}. Inherited mutations in the WRN gene cause Werner syndrome that is characterized by premature aging and cancer predisposition, phenotypes arising from persistent oxidative stress to genomic DNA {Rossi, #16; Maynard, 2009 #5}. Our work adds significant insight into the basis of these phenotypes and further highlights the importance of WRN for oxidative damage repair in mammalian genomes.

Materials and Methods

Antibodies and Proteins. Affinity purified rabbit polyclonal antibodies against human DNA pol λ and WRN were described previously {van Loon, 2009 #7; Saydam, 2007 #31}. Antibody against mouse DNA pol λ was a gift from G.L. Dianov (University of Oxford). Mouse monoclonal anti-WRN antibodies were purchased from BD Biosciences (cat. # 611169; used for immunoblotting) and Abcam (ab 66601, used for immunofluorescence staining). Mouse monoclonal antibody against 8-oxo-G was purchased from Millipore ([MAB3560](#), clone 483.15). Rabbit polyclonal antibodies against Myc-tag and TFIIF were from Santa Cruz. Recombinant human DNA pol λ protein was expressed and purified as described {Ramadan, 2003 #36}. His-tagged recombinant human DNA pol λ fragments were purified on Ni-NTA agarose (Invitrogen) as recommended by the manufacturer. Recombinant human WRN protein and its mutants were produced and purified as previously described {Orren, 1999 #30}. These protein preparations did not contain any contaminating DNA polymerase activity (Supplementary Fig. S2). RECQ5 and BLM proteins were purified as previously described {Garcia, 2004 #46; Kanagaraj, 2006 #47}.

Cell Culture Experiments. All cell lines (HeLa, U2OS, HEK293T, MEFs) used in this study were maintained in DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 10 % fetal calf serum (Gibco) and streptomycin/penicillin (100 U/ml). Where required, H₂O₂ (Sigma) was diluted using

DMEM and added to cell cultures to a final concentration of 500 μ M. Transfection of 293T cells with pcDNA3 vector expressing Myc-tagged human DNA pol λ {Wimmer, 2008 #32} was done using Metafectene (Biontex) according to manufacturer's instructions. Transfection of siRNA oligonucleotides was carried out using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's instructions. Cells were analyzed 72 hours after siRNA transfection.

Immunoprecipitation Assays. Total cell extract preparation and immunoprecipitation (IP) were carried out as described previously {Saydam, 2007 #31}. Briefly, cell extracts (1.5 mg of protein) pre-treated with DNaseI (Roche) were incubated overnight at 4°C either with purified rabbit polyclonal anti-WRN IgGs (2 μ g) or with IgGs purified from preimmune serum (2 μ g). Mixtures were then incubated for 1.5 hours at 4°C with Protein A/G-agarose beads (20 μ l; Santa Cruz). After extensive washing, the immune complexes were eluted from beads by heating at 95°C for 10 minutes in 2x Laemmli SDS buffer. The obtained immunoprecipitates were subjected to Western blot analysis. The blots were probed with appropriate antibodies and immune complexes were detected using the ECL-plus reagent (GE Healthcare). For IP of purified recombinant proteins, a mixture of equal amounts of WRN (500 ng) and DNA pol λ (500 ng) was incubated for 2 hours at 4°C and then added to Protein A/G-agarose beads (20 μ l) coated with rabbit polyclonal anti-WRN IgGs (2 μ g). After incubation for 2 hours at 4°C, the beads were washed and subjected to Western blot analysis.

Immunofluorescence Assays. Cells cultured on coverslips were fixed with 3.7% formaldehyde for 10 minutes at room temperature (RT) and subsequently permeabilized by soaking in 0.2% (v/v) Triton X-100 for 5 minutes at RT. After blocking in PBS containing 5 mg/ml BSA for 30 minutes at RT, the fixed cells were incubated overnight at 4°C with appropriate primary antibodies. All antibodies were diluted in blocking solution: rabbit polyclonal anti-WRN antibody (1:500), rabbit polyclonal anti-DNA pol λ (1:500) and mouse monoclonal anti-WRN antibody (Abcam, 1:50). The slides were washed with PBS

and incubated for 1.5 hour at RT with secondary antibodies diluted in blocking solution: FITC-conjugated sheep anti-rabbit IgG (Sigma; 1:700) and Texas Red-conjugated donkey anti-mouse IgG (Jackson Immunoresearch, 1:200). After washing with PBS, coverslips were mounted on Vectashield (Vector Laboratories) and images were captured by an Olympus IX81 fluorescence microscope. At least 100 nuclei were analyzed in each experiment.

For simultaneous detection of WRN and 8-oxo-G, cells were fixed and sequentially incubated with rabbit polyclonal anti-WRN antibody and anti-rabbit FITC conjugated secondary antibody. Stained cells were then fixed with 100% cold methanol for 30 minutes at -20°C and immersed in 100% cold acetone for 30 seconds. After washing, the fixed cells were treated with 2M HCl for 30 minutes to denature the DNA and then neutralized with 0.1 M borate buffer (pH 8.5). After washing and blocking, cells were stained with mouse monoclonal anti-8-oxo-G (IgM) antibody (1:100) followed by Texas Red-conjugated donkey anti-mouse IgM secondary antibody (Jackson Immunoresearch, 1:150). After washing, coverslips were mounted and analyzed as described above. The same procedure was used for simultaneous detection of DNA pol λ and 8-oxo-G lesion.

GST Pull-Down Assays. GST pull-down assays were performed as previously described {Saydam, 2007 #31}. Briefly, bacterially expressed GST-WRN fusion proteins were bound to glutathione-Sepharose beads (20 μ l; GE Healthcare) and incubated with 0.5 μ g of recombinant human DNA pol λ for 2 hours at 4°C. After extensive washing, bound proteins were analyzed by Western blotting. Glutathione beads coated with GST-protein only were used as control.

Surface Plasmon Resonance measurements. The kinetics of binding of the human DNA pol λ to WRN was measured at 25°C using a BIAcore 3000 instrument (GE Healthcare). A total of 1000 resonance units (RU) of WRN were immobilized on a research grade CM5 chip (Bio core TM). Different concentrations of purified human DNA pol λ (0-500 nM)

were injected at 20 μ l/min across the sensor surface. Data analysis was performed with the BIAevaluation software (Pharmacia, version) (see *SI Text*).

Cross-linking Assay. DNA-protein cross-linking assays with cell extracts and hairpin oligonucleotide substrates attached to streptavidin magnetic beads (Invitrogen) were performed as described previously {van Loon, 2009 #7}. Reactions were carried out in the presence of Mg^{2+} over different periods of time ranging from 0.25 to 4 minutes. Each reaction contained 100 μ g of protein.

Primer Extension Assay. Annealing of 72mer containing 8-oxo-G lesion (or a normal G) with the 5'-[^{32}P]-labeled 39mer primer created a primer/template substrate with the lesion (or a normal G) at the +1 position relative to single-strand/double-strand junction (see SI text for sequences of the oligonucleotides). The reaction mixtures (10 μ l) contained 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 2 mM DTT, 0.25 mg/ml BSA, 10 μ M dNTP, 1 mM $MgCl_2$ and 10 fmol of the 5'-[^{32}P]-labeled primer/template substrate. Concentrations of human DNA pol λ and human WRN are indicated in figures and figure legends. Reaction mixtures were separated on a denaturing urea-polyacrylamide gel and radiolabeled DNA species were visualized by autoradiography.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. This work was supported by grants from Swiss National Foundation, grant 3100-109312/2 to UH and grant 3100A0-116008 to PJ, by UBS AG to PJ, by Oncosuisse KLS-02344-02-2009 to PJ, and by the University of Zurich to UH and PJ. This work was partially supported by funds from the intramural program of the National Institute on Aging, NIH.

References

1. Valko M, Izakovic M, Mazur M, Rhodes CJ, Telser J (2004) Role of oxygen radicals in DNA damage and cancer incidence. *Mol Cell Biochem* 266:37-56.
2. Klaunig JE, Kamendulis LM (2004) The role of oxidative stress in carcinogenesis. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 44:239-267.
3. Klaunig JE, Kamendulis LM, Hocevar BA (2010) Oxidative stress and oxidative damage in carcinogenesis. *Toxicol Pathol* 38:96-109.
4. Collins AR (1999) Oxidative DNA damage, antioxidants, and cancer. *Bioessays* 21:238-246.
5. Dizdaroglu M, Jaruga P, Birincioglu M, Rodriguez H (2002) Free radical-induced damage to DNA: mechanisms and measurement. *Free Radic Biol Med* 32:1102-1115.
6. Avkin S, Livneh Z (2002) Efficiency, specificity and DNA polymerase-dependence of translesion replication across the oxidative DNA lesion 8-oxoguanine in human cells. *Mutat Res* 510:81-90.
7. Greenman C, *et al.* (2007) Patterns of somatic mutation in human cancer genomes. *Nature* 446:153-158.
8. Hazra TK, *et al.* (2007) Oxidative DNA damage repair in mammalian cells: a new perspective. *DNA Repair (Amst)* 6:470-480.
9. van Loon B, Markkanen E, Hubscher U (2010) Oxygen as a friend and enemy: How to combat the mutational potential of 8-oxo-guanine. *DNA Repair (Amst)* 9:604-616.
10. Takao M, Zhang QM, Yonei S, Yasui A (1999) Differential subcellular localization of human MutY homolog (hMYH) and the functional activity of adenine:8-oxoguanine DNA glycosylase. *Nucleic Acids Res* 27: 3638-3644.
11. Hayashi H, *et al.* (2002) Replication-associated repair of adenine:8-oxoguanine mispairs by MYH. *Curr Biol* 12:335-339.
12. van Loon B, Hubscher U (2009) An 8-oxo-guanine repair pathway coordinated by MUTYH glycosylase and DNA polymerase lambda. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 106:18201-18206.

13. Yang H, *et al.* (2001) Enhanced activity of adenine-DNA glycosylase (Myh) by apurinic/apyrimidinic endonuclease (Ape1) in mammalian base excision repair of an A/GO mismatch. *Nucleic Acids Res* 29:743-752.
14. Maga G, *et al.* (2007) 8-oxo-guanine bypass by human DNA polymerases in the presence of auxiliary proteins. *Nature* 447:606-608.
15. Maga G, *et al.* (2008) Replication protein A and proliferating cell nuclear antigen coordinate DNA polymerase selection in 8-oxo-guanine repair. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 105:20689-20694.
16. Dantzer F, Bjoras M, Luna L, Klungland A, Seeberg E (2003) Comparative analysis of 8-oxoG:C, 8-oxoG:A, A:C and C:C DNA repair in extracts from wild type or 8-oxoG DNA glycosylase deficient mammalian and bacterial cells. *DNA Repair (Amst)* 2:707-718.
17. Das A, *et al.* (2007) The human Werner syndrome protein stimulates repair of oxidative DNA base damage by the DNA glycosylase NEIL1. *J Biol Chem* 282:26591-26602.
18. Ahn B, Harrigan JA, Indig FE, Wilson DM, 3rd, Bohr VA (2004) Regulation of WRN helicase activity in human base excision repair. *J Biol Chem* 279:53465-53474.
19. Harrigan JA, *et al.* (2003) The Werner syndrome protein stimulates DNA polymerase beta strand displacement synthesis via its helicase activity. *J Biol Chem* 278:22686-22695.
20. Harrigan JA, *et al.* (2006) The Werner syndrome protein operates in base excision repair and cooperates with DNA polymerase beta. *Nucleic Acids Res* 34:745-754.
21. Brosh RM, Jr., *et al.* (2001) Werner syndrome protein interacts with human flap endonuclease 1 and stimulates its cleavage activity. *EMBO J* 20:5791-5801.
22. Rodriguez-Lopez AM, *et al.* (2003) Characterisation of the interaction between WRN, the helicase/exonuclease defective in progeroid Werner's syndrome, and an essential replication factor, PCNA. *Mech Ageing Dev* 124:167-174.
23. Brosh RM, Jr., *et al.* (1999) Functional and physical interaction between WRN helicase and human replication protein A. *J Biol Chem* 274:18341-18350.

24. Rossi ML, Ghosh AK, Bohr VA (2010) Roles of Werner syndrome protein in protection of genome integrity. *DNA Repair (Amst)* 9:331-344.
25. Parsons JL, Dianov GL (2004) Monitoring base excision repair proteins on damaged DNA using human cell extracts. *Biochem Soc Trans* 32:962-963.
26. Lee JW, Harrigan J, Opresko, PL, Bohr VA (2005) Pathways and functions of the Werner syndrome protein. *Mech Ageing Dev* 126:79-86.
27. Huang S, *et al.* (1998) The premature ageing syndrome protein, WRN, is a 3'-->5' exonuclease. *Nat Genet* 20:114-116.
28. Gray MD, *et al.* (1997) The Werner syndrome protein is a DNA helicase. *Nat Genet* 17:100-103.
29. Benitez-Bribiesca L, Sanchez-Suarez P (1999) Oxidative damage, bleomycin, and gamma radiation induce different types of DNA strand breaks in normal lymphocytes and thymocytes. A comet assay study. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 887:133-149.
30. Von Kobbe C, May A, Grandori C, Bohr VA (2004) Werner syndrome cells escape hydrogen peroxide-induced cell proliferation arrest. *FASEB J* 18:1970-1972.
31. Hubscher U, Spadari S, Villani G, Maga G (2010) DNA polymerases
Discovery, characterization and functions in cellular DNA transactions. ISBN 13-978-981-4299-16-9, pp 177-182.
32. Shimazaki N, *et al.* (2002) Over-expression of human DNA polymerase lambda in E. coli and characterization of the recombinant enzyme. *Genes Cells* 7:639-651.
33. Maga G, *et al.* (2002) Human DNA polymerase lambda functionally and physically interacts with proliferating cell nuclear antigen in normal and translesion DNA synthesis. *J Biol Chem* 277:48434-48440.
34. Kamath-Loeb AS, Johansson E, Burgers PM, Loeb LA (2000) Functional interaction between the Werner Syndrome protein and DNA polymerase delta. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 97:4603-4608.
35. Kamath-Loeb AS, Lan L, Nakajima S, Yasui A, Loeb LA (2007) Werner syndrome protein interacts functionally with translesion DNA polymerases. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 104:10394-10399.

36. Maynard S, Schurman SH, Harboe C, de Souza-Pinto NC, Bohr VA (2009) Base excision repair of oxidative DNA damage and association with cancer and aging. *Carcinogenesis* 30:2-10.
37. Saydam N, *et al.* (2007) Physical and functional interactions between Werner syndrome helicase and mismatch-repair initiation factors. *Nucleic Acids Res* 35:5706-5716.
38. Ramadan K, *et al.* (2003) Human DNA polymerase lambda possesses terminal deoxyribonucleotidyl transferase activity and can elongate RNA primers: implications for novel functions. *J Mol Biol* 328:63-72.
39. Orren DK, *et al.* (1999) Enzymatic and DNA binding properties of purified WRN protein: high affinity binding to single-stranded DNA but not to DNA damage induced by 4NQO. *Nucleic Acids Res* 27:3557-3566.
40. Garcia PL, Liu Y, Jiricny J, West SC, Janscak P (2004) Human RECQ5beta, a protein with DNA helicase and strand-annealing activities in a single polypeptide. *EMBO J* 23:2882-2891.
41. Kanagaraj R, Saydam N, Garcia PL, Zheng L, Janscak P (2006) Human RECQ5beta helicase promotes strand exchange on synthetic DNA structures resembling a stalled replication fork. *Nucleic Acids Res* 34:5217-5231.
42. Wimmer U, Ferrari E, Hunziker P, Hubscher U (2008) Control of DNA polymerase lambda stability by phosphorylation and ubiquitination during the cell cycle. *EMBO Rep* 9:1027-1033.

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Recruitment of WRN to a DNA duplex containing an 8-oxo-G:A mispair is dependent DNA pol λ . (A) DNA-protein cross-linking assay using 8-oxo-G:A (*Left panel*) or G:C (*Right panel*) hairpin DNA substrates and HeLa whole-cell extract. (B) DNA-protein cross-linking assay using 8-oxo-G:A hairpin substrate and whole cell extracts from DNA pol $\lambda^{-/-}$ (*Left panel*) or DNA pol $\lambda^{+/+}$ (*Right panel*) mouse embryonic fibroblasts. The experiments were performed under the conditions specified in Materials and Methods. Blots were probed with mouse monoclonal anti-WRN and rabbit polyclonal anti-DNA pol λ antibody.

Fig. 2. WRN and DNA pol λ physically interact. (A) Co-immunoprecipitation of DNA pol λ with WRN from extracts of non-treated and H₂O₂-treated HEK293T cells. Cells were transiently transfected with plasmid expressing Myc-tagged DNA pol λ and, 48 hours post transfection, treated with 500 μ M H₂O₂ for 2 hours or mock-treated. WRN was immunoprecipitated using rabbit polyclonal anti-WRN antibody as described under Materials and Methods. Blots were probed with rabbit polyclonal anti-Myc antibody and mouse monoclonal anti-WRN antibody. Lane 2, control immunoprecipitate obtained with preimmune rabbit IgGs. (B) Co-immunoprecipitation of DNA pol λ with WRN from a mixture of purified proteins (300 ng of each protein) pre-incubated on ice for 2 hours. Blots were probed as in (A). (C) Analysis of WRN binding to DNA pol λ using BIAcore 3000. An overlay plot of sensograms obtained by injection of indicated concentrations of DNA pol λ over a CM-5 chip coated with WRN is shown. (D) Mapping of WRN-interacting domain of DNA pol λ . (*Top panel*) Domain organization of DNA pol λ . NLS, nuclear localization sequence; BRCT, BRCA1 C-terminal domain; Ser/Pro, serine/proline rich domain; Pol X domain, catalytic domain conserved in the X family of DNA pols. Black lines indicate fragments used for mapping. (*Bottom panel*) Co-immunoprecipitation assay. Purified (His)₆-tagged DNA pol λ fragments were incubated with full-length WRN followed by immunoprecipitation with rabbit polyclonal antibody against WRN or with control (Ctrl) IgG. Immunoprecipitates were analyzed by Western blotting as in (A). IB,

immunoblot. (E) Mapping of the DNA pol λ -interacting domain of WRN. (*Top panel*) Domain organization of WRN. Exo, Exonuclease domain; DExH, helicase domain conserved in the DExH family of helicases; RQC, RecQ C-terminal domain composed of Zn-binding (Zn) and winged-helix (WH) subdomains; HRDC, helicase and RNase D C-terminal domain. The black lines indicate WRN fragments used. (*Bottom panel*) GST pull-down assay. The indicated WRN fragments were produced as fusions with GST and immobilized on glutathione beads. Binding of purified recombinant DNA pol λ to the beads was analyzed by Western blotting. The Coomassie Brilliant Blue-stained gel from SDS-PAGE analysis of the GST-WRN fragments isolated on glutathione beads is also shown. Asterisks indicate the GST-WRN fragments. The additional protein bands correspond to proteolytic degradation products as determined by immunoblotting using an anti-GST antibody. Lane 1, 20% of input of DNA pol λ .

Fig. 3. WRN stimulates 8-oxo-G bypass by DNA pol λ . (A) Extension by DNA pol λ of a 5'-end-labeled 39-nt DNA primer annealed to a 72-nt undamaged control DNA template in the presence of indicated concentrations of WRN, BLM and RECQ5, respectively. Individual dNTPs were present at a concentration of 10 μ M. Lane 1, control reaction in the absence of dNTPs. (B) As in (A) except that the DNA template contains a single 8-oxo-G at position +1. (C) Single nucleotide incorporation by DNA pol λ on the control and 8-oxo-G templates as shown in A and B. Reactions were carried out in the absence and in the presence of 10 nM WRN as indicated. Lane 1 control reaction in the absence of dNTPs. (D) Primer extension by DNA pol λ in the presence of helicase-deficient (K-WRN) and exonuclease-deficient (N-WRN) mutants of WRN. The DNA substrates used were the same as in (A) and (B), respectively. Reactions in (A-D) were carried out and analyzed as specified under Materials and Methods.

Fig. 4. WRN and DNA pol λ co-localize at sites of 8-oxo-G lesions in human cells. (A) WRN colocalizes with DNA pol λ after exposure of U2OS cells to oxidative stress. Cells grown on cover slides were either left untreated or treated with 500 μ M H₂O₂ for 2 hours.

After treatment, cells were fixed and immunostained using anti-DNA pol λ (green) and anti-WRN (red) antibodies. DAPI staining of the nucleus is shown in blue. (B) WRN and DNA pol λ are recruited to sites of 8-oxo-G lesions. U2OS cells were left either non-treated (*Top panels*) or treated with 500 μ M H₂O₂ for 2 hours (*Lower panels*), fixed and co-stained either with anti-WRN (green) and anti-8-oxo-G (red) antibodies or with anti-DNA pol λ (green) and 8-oxo-G (red) antibodies under conditions described in Materials and Methods. Images were captured on an Olympus IX81 fluorescence microscope

Fig. 5. WRN localization to sites of 8-oxo-G lesions *in vivo* is dependent on DNA pol λ . (A) Western blot analysis of extracts of U2OS cells transfected with WRN siRNA (siWRN) and control siRNA (siCtrl), respectively. Cells were harvested 72 hours post-transfection. Blots were probed with antibodies against WRN, DNA pol λ and TFIIH (loading control). (B) Graph showing the proportion of siCtrl and siWRN cells positive for colocalization between DNA pol λ and 8-oxo-G foci after mock- and H₂O₂-treatment. Cells were treated with 500 μ M H₂O₂ (or mock-treated) for 2 hours, fixed and immunostained to visualize WRN and 8-oxo-G. Treatment was carried out 72 hours after siRNA transfection. (C) Western blot analysis of extracts from DNA pol $\lambda^{+/+}$ and DNA pol $\lambda^{-/-}$ mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs). Blots were probed with antibodies against WRN, DNA pol λ and β -tubulin (loading control). The arrowhead indicates the band corresponding to mouse DNA pol λ . (D) Graph showing the proportion of DNA pol $\lambda^{+/+}$ and DNA pol $\lambda^{-/-}$ MEFs positive for co-localization of WRN and 8-oxo-G foci after mock- and H₂O₂-treatment, respectively. H₂O₂ was present at a concentration of 100 μ M for 2 hours. After treatment, cells were fixed and stained for WRN and 8-oxo-G. The data points in (A) and (B) represent the mean of three independent experiments with at least 100 nuclei counted in each experiment. IB, immunoblot.

Supplementary Information

Supplementary Materials and Methods

DNA Substrates and siRNA. Oligonucleotides used for primer extension assays were purchased from Purimix and purified by denaturing PAGE. The sequences are:

72-mer template:

3'-ATGTTGGTTCTCGTATGCTGCCGGTCACGGCTTAAGTGT**X**GCGGCCGCG
GTTGGAGGGCTTATAGATTATG-5'; the bold letter X denotes G, 8-oxo-G, abasic site,
4-methylthymine or 6-methylguanine.

60-mer template:

3'-ATGTTGGTTCTCGTATGCTGCCGGTCACGGCTTTTCTT**G**GTTCCTATCGG
TGGTTAGTCG-5'; the 60-mer template containing a single cis-platinum adduct on the G
residues indicated in bold was prepared as described {Hoffmann, 1995 #37}.

The underlined sequences correspond to the primer annealing sites. The primers were 5'-
end labeled with T4 polynucleotide kinase and γ [³²P]ATP (GE Healthcare) mixed with
appropriate template oligonucleotide at 1:1 (M/M) ratio in the presence of 20 mM Tris-HCl
(pH 7.4) and 150 mM NaCl, heated at 95°C for 10 minutes and then slowly cooled down to
room temperature.

All siRNA oligoduplexes used in this study were purchased from Microsynth. The
sequences of the top strands of these duplexes are shown below:

siWRN: 5'-UAGAGGGAAACUUGGCAAA-3'

siCtrl: 5'-CGU ACG CGG AAU ACU UCG A-3'

Surface Plasmon Resonance Measurements. All binding experiments were performed on
a Biacore 3000 apparatus (Biacore, GE Healthcare) at 25°C in running HBS buffer (10 mM
Hepes (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 3 mM EDTA and 0.005% P20 surfactant). A total of 1000
resonance units (RU) of WRN helicase (ligand) were immobilized on a research grade
CM5 biosensor chip (BIAcoreTM) in 10 mM sodium acetate (pH 3.0) according to the

manufactures amine coupling kit. The un-reacted residues on the surface were blocked by washing with 1M ethanolamine (pH 8.5). One flow cell left blank was used as reference cell. Different concentration of DNA pol λ were prepared in HBS running buffer and injected at 20 μ l/min across the sensor surface. The surface was regenerated by a 30 sec pulse of 10 mM glycine followed by a 30 sec pulse of 100 mM HCl and 0.01% SDS at a flow rate of 35 μ l/min. The signal changes on the activated/blocked control channel were subtracted from the WRN-DNA pol λ binding interaction and the subtracted sensogram were analyzed. Injections were performed for each protein concentration. Sensograms were evaluated kinetically using BIAcore Evaluation Software.

Supplementary References

Supplementary Figure Legends.

Fig. S1. WRN has no effect on primer extension by DNA pol λ on DNA templates containing apurinic site, 4-methylthymine, 6-methylguanine or cis-platinum. The experiments were performed as described in Materials and Methods. DNA pol λ -catalyzed extension of a 5'-[32 P]-labeled 39-nt DNA primer annealed to 72-nt templates containing base lesions as indicated. Reactions were carried out in the absence or in the presence of indicated concentrations WRN. Lanes 1, 6, 11 and 16, control reactions carried out in the absence of DNA pol λ and WRN (no enzyme control). AP, apurinic site.

Fig. S2. Preparations of WRN and its mutants used in this study do not contain a contaminating DNA polymerase activity. Primer extension assay was carried out as described in Materials and Methods using the lesion-free template. WRN and its mutants were present at a concentration of 8 nM. DNA pol λ was 6 nM.

Figure 1

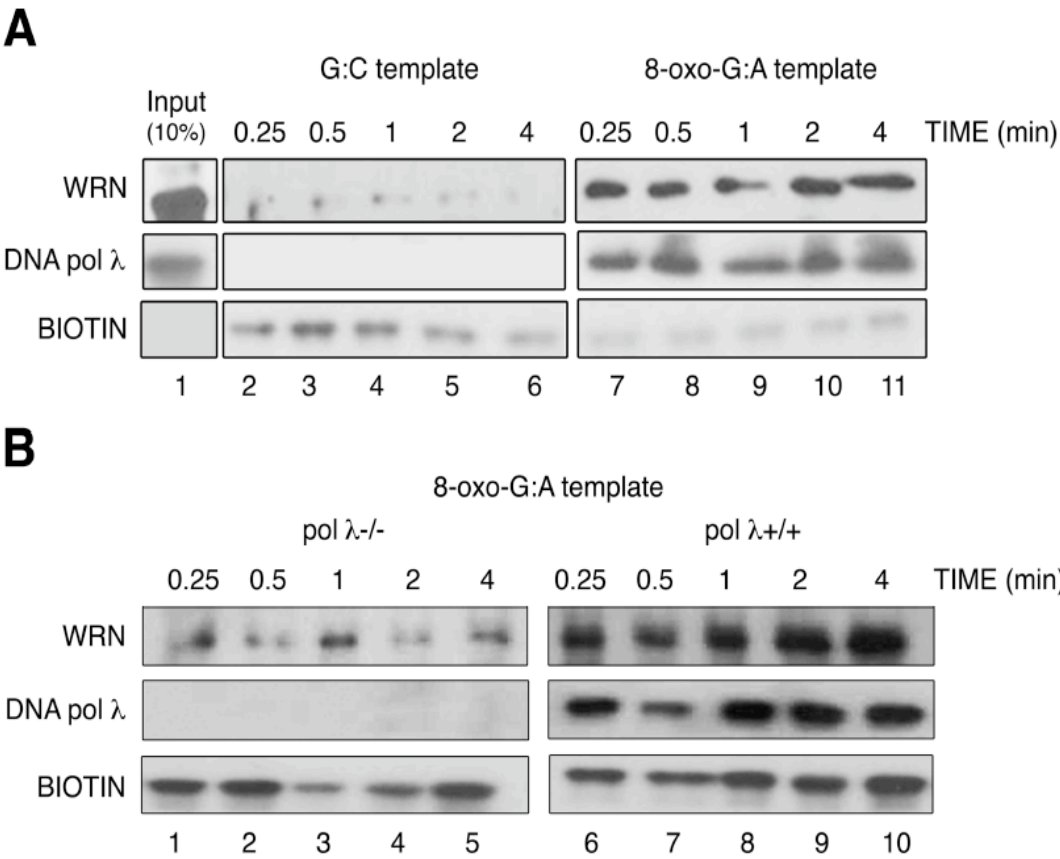


Figure 2

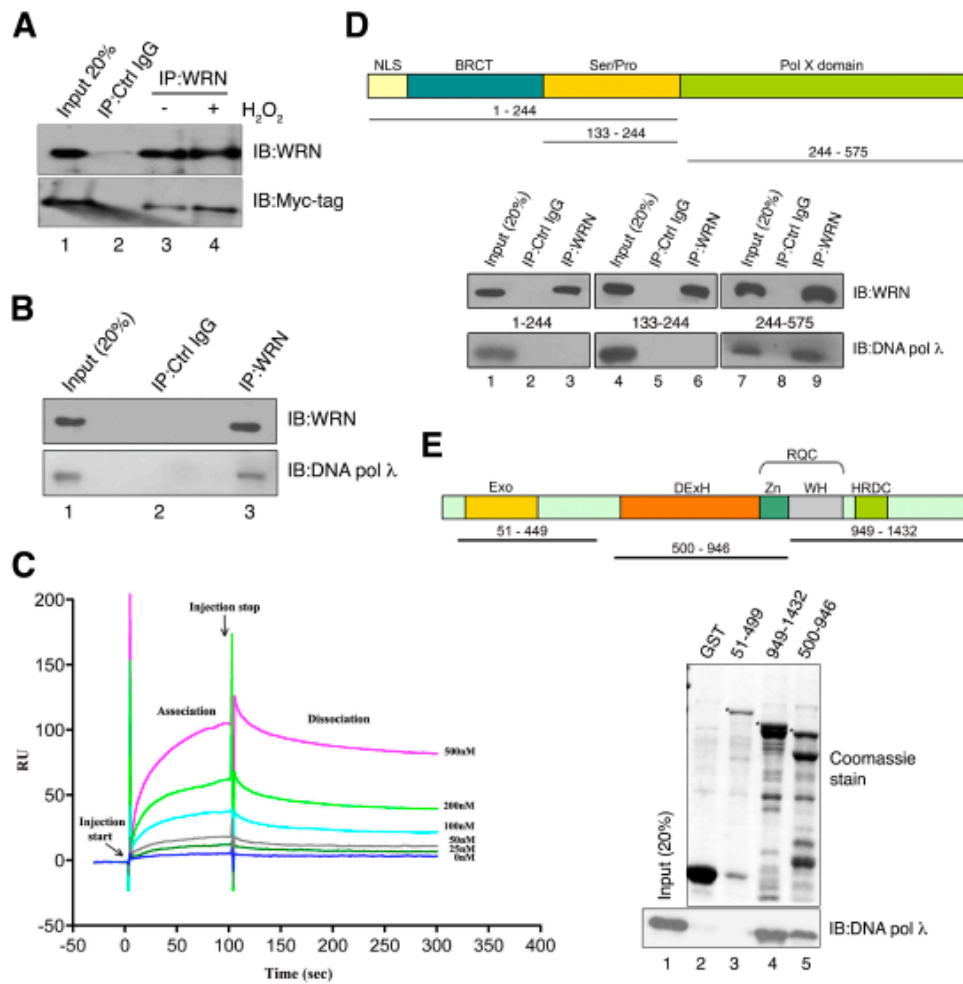


Figure 3

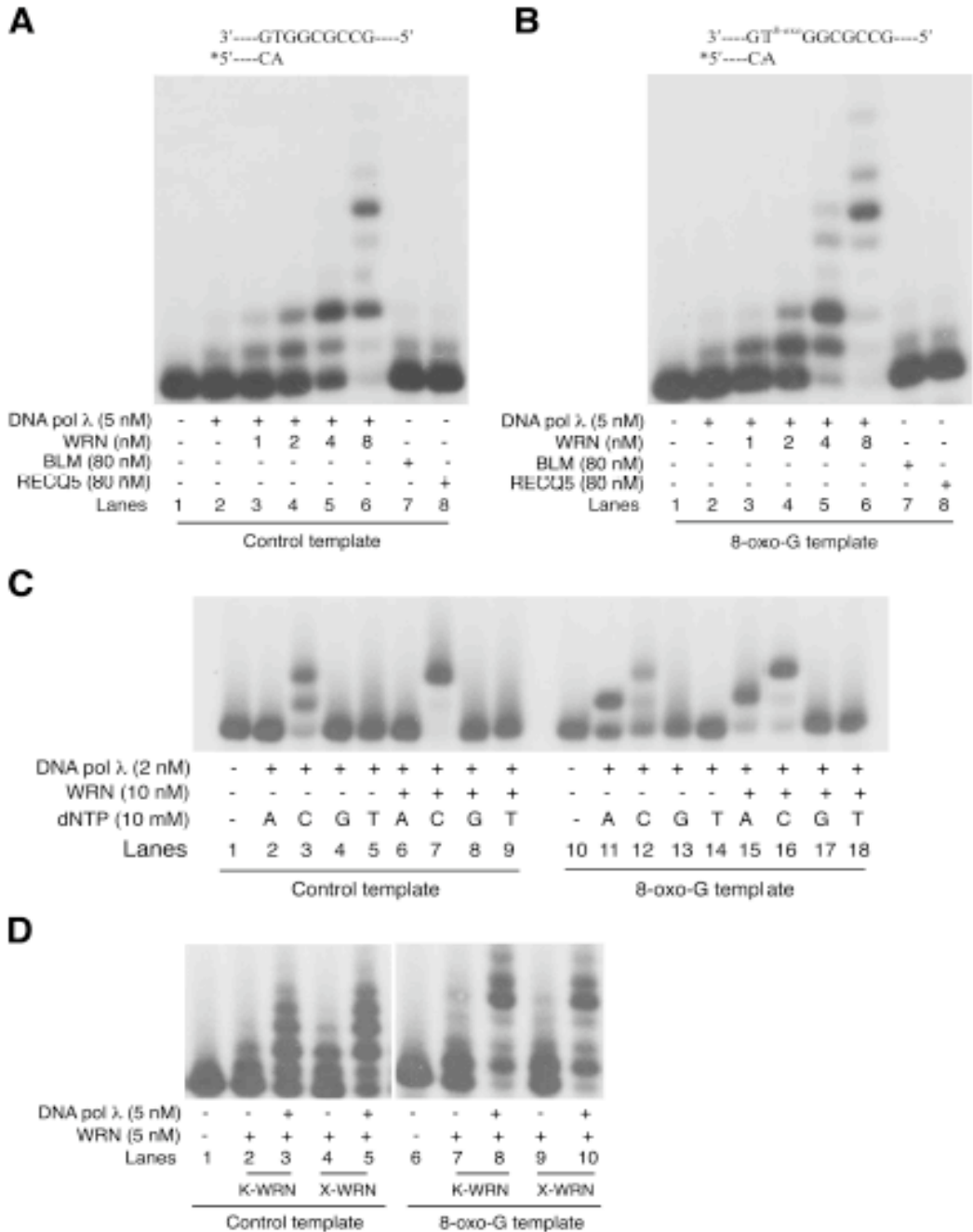


Figure 4

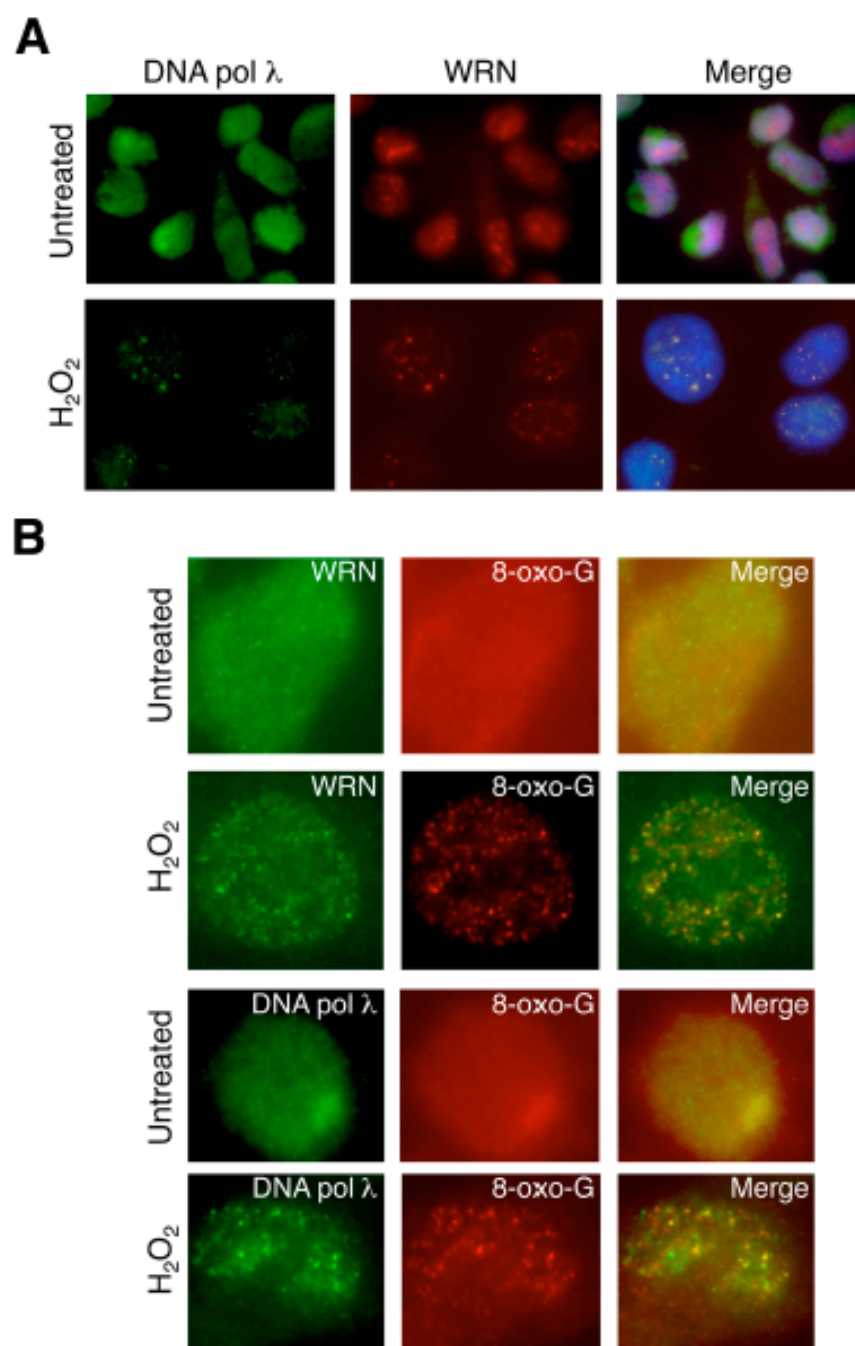
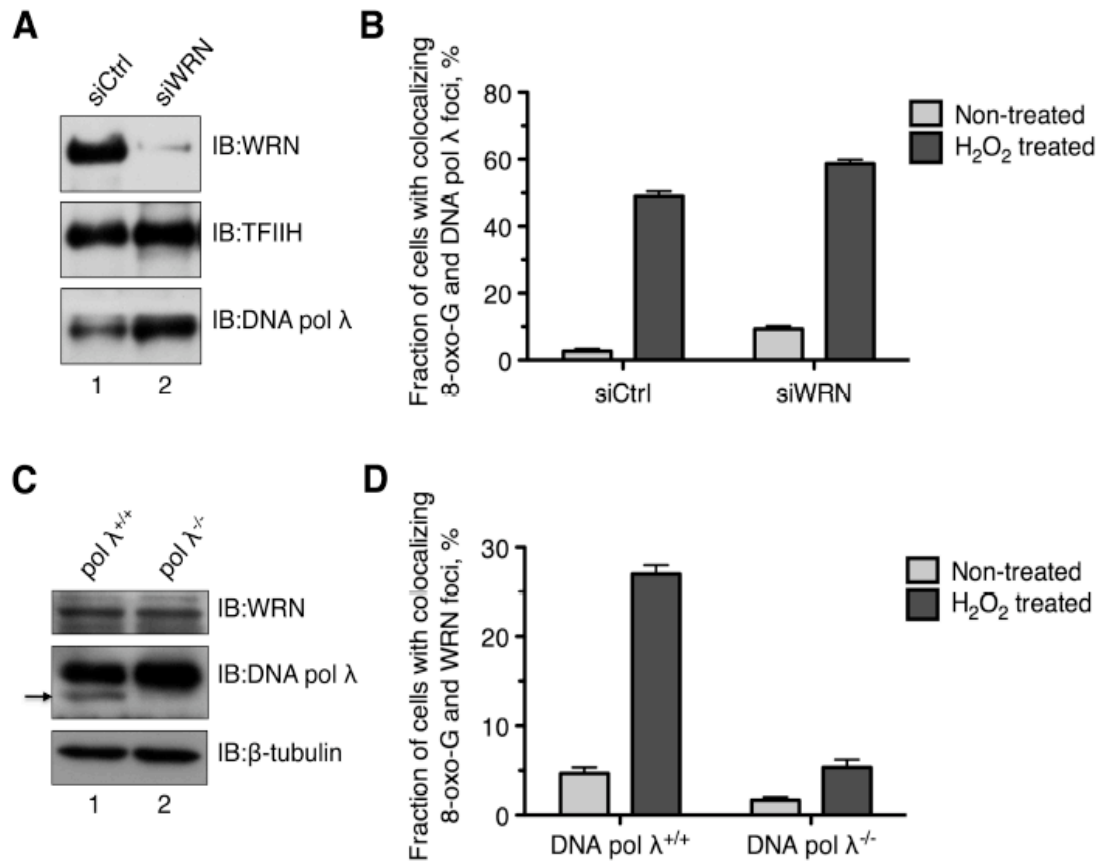
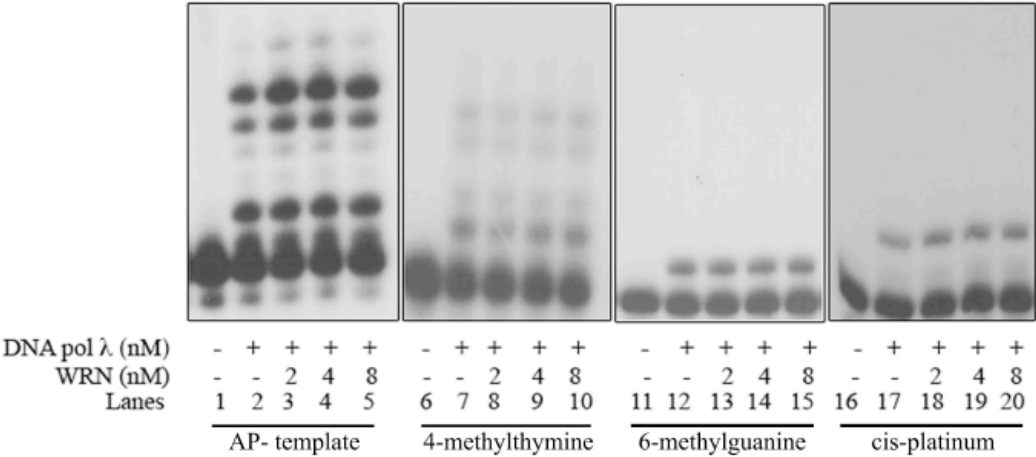


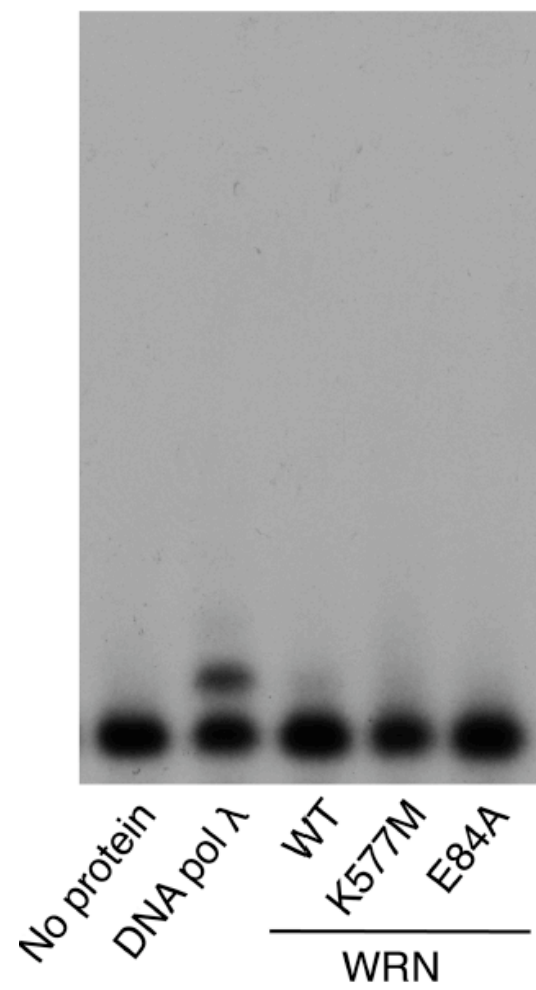
Figure 5



FigureS1



FigureS2



REFERENCES

1. Margison, G. P., Santibanez Koref, M. F., and Povey, A. C. (2002) *Mutagenesis* **17**, 483-487
2. Bodell, W. J., and Singer, B. (1979) *Biochemistry* **18**, 2860-2863
3. Boiteux, S., and Laval, J. (1982) *Biochimie* **64**, 637-641
4. Larson, K., Sahm, J., Shenkar, R., and Strauss, B. (1985) *Mutat Res* **150**, 77-84
5. Niture, S. K., Rao, U. S., and Srivenugopal, K. S. (2006) *Int J Oncol* **29**, 1269-1278
6. Cejka, P., Mojas, N., Gillet, L., Schar, P., and Jiricny, J. (2005) *Curr Biol* **15**, 1395-1400
7. Sedgwick, B. (2004) *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **5**, 148-157
8. Bignami, M., O'Driscoll, M., Aquilina, G., and Karran, P. (2000) *Mutat Res* **462**, 71-82
9. Allan, J. M., and Travis, L. B. (2005) *Nat Rev Cancer* **5**, 943-955
10. Loechler, E. L., Green, C. L., and Essigmann, J. M. (1984) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **81**, 6271-6275
11. Pegg, A. E. (2000) *Mutat Res* **462**, 83-100
12. Margison, G. P., and Santibanez-Koref, M. F. (2002) *Bioessays* **24**, 255-266
13. Marchesi, F., Turriziani, M., Tortorelli, G., Avvisati, G., Torino, F., and De Vecchis, L. (2007) *Pharmacol Res* **56**, 275-287
14. Liu, L., Qin, X., and Gerson, S. L. (1999) *Carcinogenesis* **20**, 279-284
15. Becker, K., Dosch, J., Gregel, C. M., Martin, B. A., and Kaina, B. (1996) *Cancer Res* **56**, 3244-3249
16. Nakatsuru, Y., Matsukuma, S., Nemoto, N., Sugano, H., Sekiguchi, M., and Ishikawa, T. (1993) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **90**, 6468-6472
17. Glassner, B. J., Weeda, G., Allan, J. M., Broekhof, J. L., Carls, N. H., Donker, I., Engelward, B. P., Hampson, R. J., Hersmus, R., Hickman, M. J., Roth, R. B., Warren, H. B., Wu, M. M., Hoeijmakers, J. H., and Samson, L. D. (1999) *Mutagenesis* **14**, 339-347
18. Reese, J. S., Qin, X., Ballas, C. B., Sekiguchi, M., and Gerson, S. L. (2001) *J Hematother Stem Cell Res* **10**, 115-123
19. Wang, J. Y., and Edelmann, W. (2006) *Cancer Cell* **9**, 417-418
20. Jiricny, J. (2006) *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **7**, 335-346
21. Klapacz, J., Meira, L. B., Luchetti, D. G., Calvo, J. A., Bronson, R. T., Edelmann, W., and Samson, L. D. (2009) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **106**, 576-581
22. Singh, J., Su, L., and Snow, E. T. (1996) *J Biol Chem* **271**, 28391-28398
23. Dosanjh, M. K., Galeros, G., Goodman, M. F., and Singer, B. (1991) *Biochemistry* **30**, 11595-11599
24. Voigt, J. M., and Topal, M. D. (1995) *Carcinogenesis* **16**, 1775-1782
25. Haracska, L., Prakash, S., and Prakash, L. (2000) *Mol Cell Biol* **20**, 8001-8007
26. Haracska, L., Prakash, L., and Prakash, S. (2002) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **99**, 16000-16005
27. Choi, J. Y., Chowdhury, G., Zang, H., Angel, K. C., Vu, C. C., Peterson, L. A., and Guengerich, F. P. (2006) *J Biol Chem* **281**, 38244-38256
28. Karran, P., Macpherson, P., Ceccotti, S., Dogliotti, E., Griffin, S., and Bignami, M. (1993) *J Biol Chem* **268**, 15878-15886

29. Hubscher, U., Maga, G., and Spadari, S. (2002) *Annu Rev Biochem* **71**, 133-163
30. Ramadan, K., Shevelev, I. V., Maga, G., and Hubscher, U. (2002) *J Biol Chem* **277**, 18454-18458
31. Yamtich, J., and Sweasy, J. B. (2009) *Biochim Biophys Acta*
32. Bebenek, K., Garcia-Diaz, M., Blanco, L., and Kunkel, T. A. (2003) *J Biol Chem* **278**, 34685-34690
33. Garcia-Diaz, M., Dominguez, O., Lopez-Fernandez, L. A., de Lera, L. T., Saniger, M. L., Ruiz, J. F., Parraga, M., Garcia-Ortiz, M. J., Kirchhoff, T., del Mazo, J., Bernad, A., and Blanco, L. (2000) *J Mol Biol* **301**, 851-867
34. Garcia-Diaz, M., Bebenek, K., Gao, G., Pedersen, L. C., London, R. E., and Kunkel, T. A. (2005) *DNA Repair (Amst)* **4**, 1358-1367
35. Wimmer, U., Ferrari, E., Hunziker, P., and Hubscher, U. (2008) *EMBO Rep* **9**, 1027-1033
36. Frouin, I., Toueille, M., Ferrari, E., Shevelev, I., and Hubscher, U. (2005) *Nucleic Acids Res* **33**, 5354-5361
37. Moon, A. F., Garcia-Diaz, M., Batra, V. K., Beard, W. A., Bebenek, K., Kunkel, T. A., Wilson, S. H., and Pedersen, L. C. (2007) *DNA Repair (Amst)* **6**, 1709-1725
38. Garcia-Diaz, M., Bebenek, K., Sabariego, R., Dominguez, O., Rodriguez, J., Kirchhoff, T., Garcia-Palomero, E., Picher, A. J., Juarez, R., Ruiz, J. F., Kunkel, T. A., and Blanco, L. (2002) *J Biol Chem* **277**, 13184-13191
39. Garcia-Diaz, M., Bebenek, K., Kunkel, T. A., and Blanco, L. (2001) *J Biol Chem* **276**, 34659-34663
40. DeRose, E. F., Kirby, T. W., Mueller, G. A., Bebenek, K., Garcia-Diaz, M., Blanco, L., Kunkel, T. A., and London, R. E. (2003) *Biochemistry* **42**, 9564-9574
41. Braithwaite, E. K., Prasad, R., Shock, D. D., Hou, E. W., Beard, W. A., and Wilson, S. H. (2005) *J Biol Chem* **280**, 18469-18475
42. Podlitsky, A. J., Dianova, I., Podust, V. N., Bohr, V. A., and Dianov, G. L. (2001) *EMBO J* **20**, 1477-1482
43. Maga, G., Villani, G., Crespan, E., Wimmer, U., Ferrari, E., Bertocci, B., and Hubscher, U. (2007) *Nature* **447**, 606-608
44. van Loon, B., and Hubscher, U. (2009) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **106**, 18201-18206
45. Lee, J. W., Blanco, L., Zhou, T., Garcia-Diaz, M., Bebenek, K., Kunkel, T. A., Wang, Z., and Povirk, L. F. (2004) *J Biol Chem* **279**, 805-811
46. Nick McElhinny, S. A., Havener, J. M., Garcia-Diaz, M., Juarez, R., Bebenek, K., Kee, B. L., Blanco, L., Kunkel, T. A., and Ramsden, D. A. (2005) *Mol Cell* **19**, 357-366
47. Bertocci, B., De Smet, A., Weill, J. C., and Reynaud, C. A. (2006) *Immunity* **25**, 31-41
48. Garcia-Diaz, M., Bebenek, K., Krahn, J. M., Blanco, L., Kunkel, T. A., and Pedersen, L. C. (2004) *Mol Cell* **13**, 561-572
49. Foley, M. C., Arora, K., and Schlick, T. (2006) *Biophys J* **91**, 3182-3195
50. Foley, M. C., and Schlick, T. (2009) *J Phys Chem B* **113**, 13035-13047
51. Garcia-Diaz, M., Bebenek, K., Krahn, J. M., Kunkel, T. A., and Pedersen, L. C. (2005) *Nat Struct Mol Biol* **12**, 97-98
52. Radhakrishnan, R., Arora, K., Wang, Y., Beard, W. A., Wilson, S. H., and Schlick, T. (2006) *Biochemistry* **45**, 15142-15156

53. Garcia-Diaz, M., Bebenek, K., Larrea, A. A., Havener, J. M., Perera, L., Krahn, J. M., Pedersen, L. C., Ramsden, D. A., and Kunkel, T. A. (2009) *Nat Struct Mol Biol* **16**, 967-972
54. Maga, G., and Hubscher, U. (2003) *J Cell Sci* **116**, 3051-3060
55. Moldovan, G. L., Pfander, B., and Jentsch, S. (2007) *Cell* **129**, 665-679
56. Gulbis, J. M., Kelman, Z., Hurwitz, J., O'Donnell, M., and Kuriyan, J. (1996) *Cell* **87**, 297-306
57. Kong, X. P., Onrust, R., O'Donnell, M., and Kuriyan, J. (1992) *Cell* **69**, 425-437
58. Indiani, C., and O'Donnell, M. (2006) *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **7**, 751-761
59. Krishna, T. S., Kong, X. P., Gary, S., Burgers, P. M., and Kuriyan, J. (1994) *Cell* **79**, 1233-1243
60. Jonsson, Z. O., Hindges, R., and Hubscher, U. (1998) *EMBO J* **17**, 2412-2425
61. Warbrick, E. (2000) *Bioessays* **22**, 997-1006
62. Xu, H., Zhang, P., Liu, L., and Lee, M. Y. (2001) *Biochemistry* **40**, 4512-4520
63. Warbrick, E., Lane, D. P., Glover, D. M., and Cox, L. S. (1997) *Oncogene* **14**, 2313-2321
64. Levin, D. S., Bai, W., Yao, N., O'Donnell, M., and Tomkinson, A. E. (1997) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **94**, 12863-12868
65. Waga, S., Hannon, G. J., Beach, D., and Stillman, B. (1994) *Nature* **369**, 574-578
66. Zhang, P., Mo, J. Y., Perez, A., Leon, A., Liu, L., Mazloun, N., Xu, H., and Lee, M. Y. (1999) *J Biol Chem* **274**, 26647-26653
67. Eissenberg, J. C., Ayyagari, R., Gomes, X. V., and Burgers, P. M. (1997) *Mol Cell Biol* **17**, 6367-6378
68. Fotedar, R., Mossi, R., Fitzgerald, P., Rousselle, T., Maga, G., Brickner, H., Messier, H., Kasibhatla, S., Hubscher, U., and Fotedar, A. (1996) *EMBO J* **15**, 4423-4433
69. Xiong, Y., Zhang, H., and Beach, D. (1992) *Cell* **71**, 505-514
70. Hoege, C., Pfander, B., Moldovan, G. L., Pyrowolakis, G., and Jentsch, S. (2002) *Nature* **419**, 135-141
71. Kannouche, P. L., Wing, J., and Lehmann, A. R. (2004) *Mol Cell* **14**, 491-500
72. Watanabe, K., Tateishi, S., Kawasuji, M., Tsurimoto, T., Inoue, H., and Yamaizumi, M. (2004) *EMBO J* **23**, 3886-3896
73. Unk, I., Hajdu, I., Fatyol, K., Szakal, B., Blastyak, A., Bermudez, V., Hurwitz, J., Prakash, L., Prakash, S., and Haracska, L. (2006) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **103**, 18107-18112
74. Motegi, A., Sood, R., Moinova, H., Markowitz, S. D., Liu, P. P., and Myung, K. (2006) *J Cell Biol* **175**, 703-708
75. Unk, I., Hajdu, I., Fatyol, K., Hurwitz, J., Yoon, J. H., Prakash, L., Prakash, S., and Haracska, L. (2008) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **105**, 3768-3773
76. Zhang, S., Chea, J., Meng, X., Zhou, Y., Lee, E. Y., and Lee, M. Y. (2008) *Cell Cycle* **7**, 3399-3404
77. Pfander, B., Moldovan, G. L., Sacher, M., Hoege, C., and Jentsch, S. (2005) *Nature* **436**, 428-433
78. Wang, S. C., Nakajima, Y., Yu, Y. L., Xia, W., Chen, C. T., Yang, C. C., McIntush, E. W., Li, L. Y., Hawke, D. H., Kobayashi, R., and Hung, M. C. (2006) *Nat Cell Biol* **8**, 1359-1368
79. Naryzhny, S. N., and Lee, H. (2004) *J Biol Chem* **279**, 20194-20199

80. Hoelz, D. J., Arnold, R. J., Dobrolecki, L. E., Abdel-Aziz, W., Loehrer, A. P., Novotny, M. V., Schnaper, L., Hickey, R. J., and Malkas, L. H. (2006) *Proteomics* **6**, 4808-4816
81. Lee, S. D., and Alani, E. (2006) *J Mol Biol* **355**, 175-184
82. Umar, A., Buermeyer, A. B., Simon, J. A., Thomas, D. C., Clark, A. B., Liskay, R. M., and Kunkel, T. A. (1996) *Cell* **87**, 65-73
83. Gary, R., Ludwig, D. L., Cornelius, H. L., MacInnes, M. A., and Park, M. S. (1997) *J Biol Chem* **272**, 24522-24529
84. Stoimenov, I., and Helleday, T. (2009) *Biochem Soc Trans* **37**, 605-613
85. Bienko, M., Green, C. M., Crosetto, N., Rudolf, F., Zapart, G., Coull, B., Kannouche, P., Wider, G., Peter, M., Lehmann, A. R., Hofmann, K., and Dikic, I. (2005) *Science* **310**, 1821-1824
86. Acharya, N., Yoon, J. H., Gali, H., Unk, I., Haracska, L., Johnson, R. E., Hurwitz, J., Prakash, L., and Prakash, S. (2008) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **105**, 17724-17729
87. Wold, M. S. (1997) *Annu Rev Biochem* **66**, 61-92
88. Fairman, M. P., and Stillman, B. (1988) *EMBO J* **7**, 1211-1218
89. Alani, E., Thresher, R., Griffith, J. D., and Kolodner, R. D. (1992) *J Mol Biol* **227**, 54-71
90. Kenny, M. K., Schlegel, U., Furneaux, H., and Hurwitz, J. (1990) *J Biol Chem* **265**, 7693-7700
91. Kim, C., Paulus, B. F., and Wold, M. S. (1994) *Biochemistry* **33**, 14197-14206
92. Atrazhev, A., Zhang, S., and Grosse, F. (1992) *Eur J Biochem* **210**, 855-865
93. Brill, S. J., and Stillman, B. (1989) *Nature* **342**, 92-95
94. Georgaki, A., Strack, B., Podust, V., and Hubscher, U. (1992) *FEBS Lett* **308**, 240-244
95. Bochkarev, A., and Bochkareva, E. (2004) *Curr Opin Struct Biol* **14**, 36-42
96. Jiang, X., Klimovich, V., Arunkumar, A. I., Hysinger, E. B., Wang, Y., Ott, R. D., Guler, G. D., Weiner, B., Chazin, W. J., and Fanning, E. (2006) *EMBO J* **25**, 5516-5526
97. Din, S., Brill, S. J., Fairman, M. P., and Stillman, B. (1990) *Genes Dev* **4**, 968-977
98. Fang, F., and Newport, J. W. (1993) *J Cell Sci* **106 (Pt 3)**, 983-994
99. Nuss, J. E., Patrick, S. M., Oakley, G. G., Alter, G. M., Robison, J. G., Dixon, K., and Turchi, J. J. (2005) *Biochemistry* **44**, 8428-8437
100. He, Z., Henricksen, L. A., Wold, M. S., and Ingles, C. J. (1995) *Nature* **374**, 566-569
101. Matsunaga, T., Park, C. H., Bessho, T., Mu, D., and Sancar, A. (1996) *J Biol Chem* **271**, 11047-11050
102. Matsuda, T., Saijo, M., Kuraoka, I., Kobayashi, T., Nakatsu, Y., Nagai, A., Enjoji, T., Masutani, C., Sugasawa, K., Hanaoka, F., and et al. (1995) *J Biol Chem* **270**, 4152-4157
103. Park, M. S., Ludwig, D. L., Stigger, E., and Lee, S. H. (1996) *J Biol Chem* **271**, 18996-19000
104. Choudhary, S. K., and Li, R. (2002) *J Cell Biochem* **84**, 666-674
105. Abramova, N. A., Russell, J., Botchan, M., and Li, R. (1997) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **94**, 7186-7191
106. Kool, E. T. (2002) *Annu Rev Biochem* **71**, 191-219

107. Kat, A., Thilly, W. G., Fang, W. H., Longley, M. J., Li, G. M., and Modrich, P. (1993) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **90**, 6424-6428
108. Dimitri, A., Burns, J. A., Broyde, S., and Scicchitano, D. A. (2008) *Nucleic Acids Res* **36**, 6459-6471
109. Karran, P., and Bignami, M. (1994) *Bioessays* **16**, 833-839
110. Snow, E. T., Foote, R. S., and Mitra, S. (1984) *J Biol Chem* **259**, 8095-8100
111. Picher, A. J., and Blanco, L. (2007) *DNA Repair (Amst)* **6**, 1749-1756
112. Crespan, E., Hubscher, U., and Maga, G. (2007) *Nucleic Acids Res* **35**, 5173-5181
113. Picher, A. J., Garcia-Diaz, M., Bebenek, K., Pedersen, L. C., Kunkel, T. A., and Blanco, L. (2006) *Nucleic Acids Res* **34**, 3259-3266
114. Crespan, E., Alexandrova, L., Khandazhinskaya, A., Jasko, M., Kukhanova, M., Villani, G., Hubscher, U., Spadari, S., and Maga, G. (2007) *Nucleic Acids Res* **35**, 45-57
115. Crespan, E., Zanoli, S., Khandazhinskaya, A., Shevelev, I., Jasko, M., Alexandrova, L., Kukhanova, M., Blanca, G., Villani, G., Hubscher, U., Spadari, S., and Maga, G. (2005) *Nucleic Acids Res* **33**, 4117-4127
116. Shevelev, I., Blanca, G., Villani, G., Ramadan, K., Spadari, S., Hubscher, U., and Maga, G. (2003) *Nucleic Acids Res* **31**, 6916-6925
117. Rudinger, N. Z., Kranaster, R., and Marx, A. (2007) *Chem Biol* **14**, 185-194
118. Marx, A., Summerer, D., Sauter, K. B., Gloeckner, C., and Rudinger, N. Z. (2007) *Nucleic Acids Symp Ser (Oxf)*, 81-82
119. Ramadan, K., Maga, G., Shevelev, I. V., Villani, G., Blanco, L., and Hubscher, U. (2003) *J Mol Biol* **328**, 63-72
120. Ginell, S. L., Kuzmich, S., Jones, R. A., and Berman, H. M. (1990) *Biochemistry* **29**, 10461-10465
121. Warren, J. J., Forsberg, L. J., and Beese, L. S. (2006) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **103**, 19701-19706
122. Greenman, C., Stephens, P., Smith, R., Dalgliesh, G. L., Hunter, C., Bignell, G., Davies, H., Teague, J., Butler, A., Stevens, C., Edkins, S., O'Meara, S., Vastrik, I., Schmidt, E. E., Avis, T., Barthorpe, S., Bhamra, G., Buck, G., Choudhury, B., Clements, J., Cole, J., Dicks, E., Forbes, S., Gray, K., Halliday, K., Harrison, R., Hills, K., Hinton, J., Jenkinson, A., Jones, D., Menzies, A., Mironenko, T., Perry, J., Raine, K., Richardson, D., Shepherd, R., Small, A., Tofts, C., Varian, J., Webb, T., West, S., Widaa, S., Yates, A., Cahill, D. P., Louis, D. N., Goldstraw, P., Nicholson, A. G., Brasseur, F., Looijenga, L., Weber, B. L., Chiew, Y. E., DeFazio, A., Greaves, M. F., Green, A. R., Campbell, P., Birney, E., Easton, D. F., Chenevix-Trench, G., Tan, M. H., Khoo, S. K., Teh, B. T., Yuen, S. T., Leung, S. Y., Wooster, R., Futreal, P. A., and Stratton, M. R. (2007) *Nature* **446**, 153-158
123. Brown, J. A., Fiala, K. A., Fowler, J. D., Sherrer, S. M., Newmister, S. A., Duym, W. W., and Suo, Z. (2009) *J Mol Biol*
124. Singer, B., Chavez, F., Goodman, M. F., Essigmann, J. M., and Dosanjh, M. K. (1989) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **86**, 8271-8274
125. Williams, L. D., and Shaw, B. R. (1987) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **84**, 1779-1783
126. Zimmer, C., Luck, G., Venner, H., and Fric, J. (1968) *Biopolymers* **6**, 563-574
127. Asensio, J. L., Lane, A. N., Dhesi, J., Bergqvist, S., and Brown, T. (1998) *J Mol Biol* **275**, 811-822
128. Plum, G. E., and Breslauer, K. J. (1995) *J Mol Biol* **248**, 679-695

129. Nair, D. T., Johnson, R. E., Prakash, L., Prakash, S., and Aggarwal, A. K. (2005) *Structure* **13**, 1569-1577
130. Kang, C. H., Berger, I., Lockshin, C., Ratliff, R., Moyzis, R., and Rich, A. (1994) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **91**, 11636-11640
131. Betts, L., Josey, J. A., Veal, J. M., and Jordan, S. R. (1995) *Science* **270**, 1838-1841
132. Nunn, C. M., Trent, J. O., and Neidle, S. (1997) *FEBS Lett* **416**, 86-89
133. Bohr, V. A. (2008) *Trends Biochem Sci* **33**, 609-620
134. Singh, D. K., Ahn, B., and Bohr, V. A. (2009) *Biogerontology* **10**, 235-252
135. Brosh, R. M., Jr., and Bohr, V. A. (2007) *Nucleic Acids Res* **35**, 7527-7544
136. Muftuoglu, M., Oshima, J., von Kobbe, C., Cheng, W. H., Leistritz, D. F., and Bohr, V. A. (2008) *Hum Genet* **124**, 369-377
137. Oshima, J. (2000) *Bioessays* **22**, 894-901
138. Brosh, R. M., Jr., Opresko, P. L., and Bohr, V. A. (2006) *Methods Enzymol* **409**, 52-85
139. Gray, M. D., Shen, J. C., Kamath-Loeb, A. S., Blank, A., Sopher, B. L., Martin, G. M., Oshima, J., and Loeb, L. A. (1997) *Nat Genet* **17**, 100-103
140. Brosh, R. M., Jr., Majumdar, A., Desai, S., Hickson, I. D., Bohr, V. A., and Seidman, M. M. (2001) *J Biol Chem* **276**, 3024-3030
141. Constantinou, A., Tarsounas, M., Karow, J. K., Brosh, R. M., Bohr, V. A., Hickson, I. D., and West, S. C. (2000) *EMBO Rep* **1**, 80-84
142. Li, J. L., Harrison, R. J., Reszka, A. P., Brosh, R. M., Jr., Bohr, V. A., Neidle, S., and Hickson, I. D. (2001) *Biochemistry* **40**, 15194-15202
143. Huang, S., Li, B., Gray, M. D., Oshima, J., Mian, I. S., and Campisi, J. (1998) *Nat Genet* **20**, 114-116
144. Harrigan, J. A., Fan, J., Momand, J., Perrino, F. W., Bohr, V. A., and Wilson, D. M., 3rd. (2007) *Mech Ageing Dev* **128**, 259-266
145. Kamath-Loeb, A. S., Shen, J. C., Loeb, L. A., and Fry, M. (1998) *J Biol Chem* **273**, 34145-34150
146. Choudhary, S., Sommers, J. A., and Brosh, R. M., Jr. (2004) *J Biol Chem* **279**, 34603-34613
147. Suzuki, T., Shiratori, M., Furuichi, Y., and Matsumoto, T. (2001) *Oncogene* **20**, 2551-2558
148. Poot, M., Hoehn, H., Runger, T. M., and Martin, G. M. (1992) *Exp Cell Res* **202**, 267-273
149. Poot, M., Yom, J. S., Whang, S. H., Kato, J. T., Gollahon, K. A., and Rabinovitch, P. S. (2001) *FASEB J* **15**, 1224-1226
150. Cheng, W. H., Muftuoglu, M., and Bohr, V. A. (2007) *Exp Gerontol* **42**, 871-878
151. Von Kobbe, C., May, A., Grandori, C., and Bohr, V. A. (2004) *FASEB J* **18**, 1970-1972
152. Karmakar, P., Piotrowski, J., Brosh, R. M., Jr., Sommers, J. A., Miller, S. P., Cheng, W. H., Snowden, C. M., Ramsden, D. A., and Bohr, V. A. (2002) *J Biol Chem* **277**, 18291-18302
153. Cheng, W. H., von Kobbe, C., Opresko, P. L., Fields, K. M., Ren, J., Kufe, D., and Bohr, V. A. (2003) *Mol Cell Biol* **23**, 6385-6395
154. Woods, Y. L., Xirodimas, D. P., Prescott, A. R., Sparks, A., Lane, D. P., and Saville, M. K. (2004) *J Biol Chem* **279**, 50157-50166

155. Muftuoglu, M., Kusumoto, R., Speina, E., Beck, G., Cheng, W. H., and Bohr, V. A. (2008) *PLoS One* **3**, e1918
156. Blander, G., Zalle, N., Daniely, Y., Taplick, J., Gray, M. D., and Oren, M. (2002) *J Biol Chem* **277**, 50934-50940
157. Klaunig, J. E., and Kamendulis, L. M. (2004) *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **44**, 239-267
158. Dizdaroglu, M., Jaruga, P., Birincioglu, M., and Rodriguez, H. (2002) *Free Radic Biol Med* **32**, 1102-1115
159. Grollman, A. P., and Moriya, M. (1993) *Trends Genet* **9**, 246-249
160. McCullough, A. K., Dodson, M. L., and Lloyd, R. S. (1999) *Annu Rev Biochem* **68**, 255-285
161. Mol, C. D., Parikh, S. S., Putnam, C. D., Lo, T. P., and Tainer, J. A. (1999) *Annu Rev Biophys Biomol Struct* **28**, 101-128
162. Morland, I., Rolseth, V., Luna, L., Rognes, T., Bjoras, M., and Seeberg, E. (2002) *Nucleic Acids Res* **30**, 4926-4936
163. Hazra, T. K., Hill, J. W., Izumi, T., and Mitra, S. (2001) *Prog Nucleic Acid Res Mol Biol* **68**, 193-205
164. Wilson, S. H. (1998) *Mutat Res* **407**, 203-215
165. Tomkinson, A. E., Chen, L., Dong, Z., Leppard, J. B., Levin, D. S., Mackey, Z. B., and Motycka, T. A. (2001) *Prog Nucleic Acid Res Mol Biol* **68**, 151-164
166. Maynard, S., Schurman, S. H., Harboe, C., de Souza-Pinto, N. C., and Bohr, V. A. (2009) *Carcinogenesis* **30**, 2-10
167. Das, A., Boldogh, I., Lee, J. W., Harrigan, J. A., Hegde, M. L., Piotrowski, J., de Souza Pinto, N., Ramos, W., Greenberg, M. M., Hazra, T. K., Mitra, S., and Bohr, V. A. (2007) *J Biol Chem* **282**, 26591-26602
168. Ahn, B., Harrigan, J. A., Indig, F. E., Wilson, D. M., 3rd, and Bohr, V. A. (2004) *J Biol Chem* **279**, 53465-53474
169. Harrigan, J. A., Opresko, P. L., von Kobbe, C., Kedar, P. S., Prasad, R., Wilson, S. H., and Bohr, V. A. (2003) *J Biol Chem* **278**, 22686-22695
170. Harrigan, J. A., Wilson, D. M., 3rd, Prasad, R., Opresko, P. L., Beck, G., May, A., Wilson, S. H., and Bohr, V. A. (2006) *Nucleic Acids Res* **34**, 745-754
171. Brosh, R. M., Jr., Driscoll, H. C., Dianov, G. L., and Sommers, J. A. (2002) *Biochemistry* **41**, 12204-12216
172. Loft, S., and Poulsen, H. E. (1996) *J Mol Med* **74**, 297-312
173. Hu, Y., Raynard, S., Sehorn, M. G., Lu, X., Bussen, W., Zheng, L., Stark, J. M., Barnes, E. L., Chi, P., Janscak, P., Jasin, M., Vogel, H., Sung, P., and Luo, G. (2007) *Genes Dev* **21**, 3073-3084
174. Baynton, K., Otterlei, M., Bjoras, M., von Kobbe, C., Bohr, V. A., and Seeberg, E. (2003) *J Biol Chem* **278**, 36476-36486
175. Otterlei, M., Bruheim, P., Ahn, B., Bussen, W., Karmakar, P., Baynton, K., and Bohr, V. A. (2006) *J Cell Sci* **119**, 5137-5146
176. Cheng, W. H., von Kobbe, C., Opresko, P. L., Arthur, L. M., Komatsu, K., Seidman, M. M., Carney, J. P., and Bohr, V. A. (2004) *J Biol Chem* **279**, 21169-21176
177. Cheng, W. H., Kusumoto, R., Opresko, P. L., Sui, X., Huang, S., Nicolette, M. L., Paull, T. T., Campisi, J., Seidman, M., and Bohr, V. A. (2006) *Nucleic Acids Res* **34**, 2751-2760

178. Kamath-Loeb, A. S., Loeb, L. A., Johansson, E., Burgers, P. M., and Fry, M. (2001) *J Biol Chem* **276**, 16439-16446
179. Kamath-Loeb, A. S., Lan, L., Nakajima, S., Yasui, A., and Loeb, L. A. (2007) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **104**, 10394-10399
180. Ozgenc, A., and Loeb, L. A. (2005) *Mutat Res* **577**, 237-251
181. Brosh, R. M., Jr., Orren, D. K., Nehlin, J. O., Ravn, P. H., Kenny, M. K., Machwe, A., and Bohr, V. A. (1999) *J Biol Chem* **274**, 18341-18350
182. Jiao, R., Harrigan, J. A., Shevelev, I., Dietschy, T., Selak, N., Indig, F. E., Piotrowski, J., Janscak, P., Bohr, V. A., and Stagljär, I. (2007) *Oncogene* **26**, 3811-3822
183. Opresko, P. L., Otterlei, M., Graakjaer, J., Bruheim, P., Dawut, L., Kolvraa, S., May, A., Seidman, M. M., and Bohr, V. A. (2004) *Mol Cell* **14**, 763-774
184. Opresko, P. L., von Kobbe, C., Laine, J. P., Harrigan, J., Hickson, I. D., and Bohr, V. A. (2002) *J Biol Chem* **277**, 41110-41119
185. Opresko, P. L., Mason, P. A., Podell, E. R., Lei, M., Hickson, I. D., Cech, T. R., and Bohr, V. A. (2005) *J Biol Chem* **280**, 32069-32080
186. Blander, G., Kipnis, J., Leal, J. F., Yu, C. E., Schellenberg, G. D., and Oren, M. (1999) *J Biol Chem* **274**, 29463-29469
187. Sharma, S., Sommers, J. A., Driscoll, H. C., Uzdilla, L., Wilson, T. M., and Brosh, R. M., Jr. (2003) *J Biol Chem* **278**, 23487-23496
188. Collins, A. R. (1999) *Bioessays* **21**, 238-246
189. Hsu, G. W., Ober, M., Carell, T., and Beese, L. S. (2004) *Nature* **431**, 217-221
190. Avkin, S., and Livneh, Z. (2002) *Mutat Res* **510**, 81-90
191. Ramadan, K., Shevelev, I., and Hubscher, U. (2004) *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **5**, 1038-1043
192. Tebbs, R. S., Flannery, M. L., Meneses, J. J., Hartmann, A., Tucker, J. D., Thompson, L. H., Cleaver, J. E., and Pedersen, R. A. (1999) *Dev Biol* **208**, 513-529
193. Sobol, R. W., Horton, J. K., Kuhn, R., Gu, H., Singhal, R. K., Prasad, R., Rajewsky, K., and Wilson, S. H. (1996) *Nature* **379**, 183-186
194. Cabelof, D. C., Guo, Z., Raffoul, J. J., Sobol, R. W., Wilson, S. H., Richardson, A., and Heydari, A. R. (2003) *Cancer Res* **63**, 5799-5807
195. Xanthoudakis, S., Smeyne, R. J., Wallace, J. D., and Curran, T. (1996) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **93**, 8919-8923
196. Larsen, E., Gran, C., Saether, B. E., Seeberg, E., and Klungland, A. (2003) *Mol Cell Biol* **23**, 5346-5353
197. Bentley, D., Selfridge, J., Millar, J. K., Samuel, K., Hole, N., Ansell, J. D., and Melton, D. W. (1996) *Nat Genet* **13**, 489-491
198. Maga, G., Crespan, E., Wimmer, U., van Loon, B., Amoroso, A., Mondello, C., Belgiovine, C., Ferrari, E., Locatelli, G., Villani, G., and Hubscher, U. (2008) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **105**, 20689-20694
199. Xie, Y., Yang, H., Cunanan, C., Okamoto, K., Shibata, D., Pan, J., Barnes, D. E., Lindahl, T., McIlhatton, M., Fishel, R., and Miller, J. H. (2004) *Cancer Res* **64**, 3096-3102
200. Rodriguez-Lopez, A. M., Jackson, D. A., Nehlin, J. O., Iborra, F., Warren, A. V., and Cox, L. S. (2003) *Mech Ageing Dev* **124**, 167-174

201. Doherty, K. M., Sommers, J. A., Gray, M. D., Lee, J. W., von Kobbe, C., Thoma, N. H., Kureekattil, R. P., Kenny, M. K., and Brosh, R. M., Jr. (2005) *J Biol Chem* **280**, 29494-29505
202. Bukowy, Z., Harrigan, J. A., Ramsden, D. A., Tudek, B., Bohr, V. A., and Stevnsner, T. (2008) *Nucleic Acids Res* **36**, 4975-4987
203. Kamath-Loeb, A. S., Johansson, E., Burgers, P. M., and Loeb, L. A. (2000) *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **97**, 4603-4608
204. Parsons, J. L., and Dianov, G. L. (2004) *Biochem Soc Trans* **32**, 962-963
205. Kusumoto, R., Muftuoglu, M., and Bohr, V. A. (2007) *Mech Ageing Dev* **128**, 50-57
206. Braithwaite, E. K., Kedar, P. S., Lan, L., Polosina, Y. Y., Asagoshi, K., Poltoratsky, V. P., Horton, J. K., Miller, H., Teebor, G. W., Yasui, A., and Wilson, S. H. (2005) *J Biol Chem* **280**, 31641-31647
207. Benitez-Bribiesca, L., and Sanchez-Suarez, P. (1999) *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **887**, 133-149
208. Fortini, P., Pascucci, B., Parlanti, E., D'Errico, M., Simonelli, V., and Dogliotti, E. (2003) *Mutat Res* **531**, 127-139

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Coming to the very end of my thesis have been a very long journey. Long in the sense that it was for the very first time I was all for myself, away from home, away from my parents and friends. I have traveled this journey with people who made this thesis and my stay possible in Zurich. It could be easy to name them but it will be tough to thank them enough, I will nonetheless try my best.

I would like to express my deep and sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Prof. Ueli Hübscher, whose encouragement, guidance, and support from the initial to the final level enabled me to develop an understanding of the subject. Thank you Ueli. I was delighted to interact with my thesis committee members Prof. Dr. Giovanni Maga and Prof. Dr. Massimo Lopes and want to thank them for their timely advice and valuable suggestions.

I owe my sincere thanks to my collaborator Prof. Dr. Pavel Janscak for their part of work without which my thesis could be incomplete. A very special thanks to Dr. Kanakaraj Radhakrishnan, who not only as a collaborator provided me with valuable advice in science discussion, but always kindly granted me his time even for answering some of my unintelligent questions. Thank you again Bhaiya for this and many more.....

Futhermore I am deeply indebted to my colleagues (past and present) and Dr. Kristijan Ramadan for sharing their experiences about the problem, as well as participating in stimulating team exercises, developing solutions to the identified problems. I want to take this opportunity to appreciate the extended assistance I received from Doris Herzog, Ralph Imhof and Peter Binz which made my stay easier at the Institute. I want to thank Dr. Maria. M. Hoffman for her assistance in Biacore. Though, it is not possible to list each individual here. Their support is, however greatly appreciated.

Ballu Thatha has been very stimulating, in me taking up graduation studies and I want to appreciate his concerns for me. I am greatly in depth to Prof.Dr.VRD and Prof. Dr. A. Surolia who provided me with an opportunity to understand the basic of Biochemistry. I want to thank all the members of the Lab 204 for their constant encouragement,

understanding, and support. They taught me how to handle a pipettes (IISc, India). Thank you all.....

Many friends have helped me show the brighter side of life through my difficult years. Their constant support and care helped me overcome setbacks and stay focused on my graduate study. I want to thank Barbara (BB) for the coffee time, discussion and for creating some special moments during my stay (AVATAR, the first 3D movie I have ever seen). I thank Mykhailo for his warm greetings and his never giving away conversations with BB, which was a great entertainment for me in the lab. I have been especially fortunate enough to know friends like Naresh, Isai, Pradeep and Ajith Bhaiya. They have been a wonderful source of advice, care and encouragement. I enjoyed the entire outing and dinner times with them. I want to extend my warm wishes to Payal, Anu, Srinu, Shreya and Amit for their timely help with no ifs and buts what so-ever, Thank you guys. Reto Valser is not a friend whom I have known a lot, but he is neither a stranger, I take this opportunity to appreciate his kindness towards me in all means, and especially for the German translation. It could be really unfair if I donot write about Kalpana Bhabhi, she has showered love, care and most importantly provided me with delicious Indian food, when I am just dreaming about it and I still believe it is just a phone call away. To Anshu Bhai, Gopi, Bala and Harsha: Thank you guys for every thing. I have always celebrated the happiness with you all on every occasion we have met. I also want to appreciate your frankfull comments and thoughts we shared, I assure you that it will show me a new road in life. Big thanks to Smitha and Nimesh for their timely help. A big hug to my friends Minu, Shelna ,Reshmi and V.Ramya for their confidence in me, which helped me be where I am today.

To my two lovely girlfriends Jo and Mini, who have shared my life in good, bad and ugly times (now it gets more difficult to write). I could talk about them for ages, for how much they have given me. I do not want to thank you both but just to say that I will always love you for every thing, though you might have gone a distance far now. Moments shared with you guys will always be cherished.....

This one is very special and emotional

To my lovely parents and sister. It's hard to find the right words to tell how I feel. I want to thank my parents for giving me their unconditional love and support both financially and emotionally till date. My father has provided me with the best of the education and gave me the freedom and time to reach the goal. He had immense belief in my ability to do good work. I only hope to have reached up to your expectations papa and wish to bring more color to his life. Love you papa. This thesis could not have been complete without my mother's support and care. A very big hug to my little sister Priya for fulfilling all my needs and wishes to come true over the years. She has been a task master as well as a elderly sister at times.....

I want to thank Ram for taking of time from his busy schedule to help me successfully complete my thesis and posters.

If I have missed out on any of them during this journey, it is due to my absence of mind.

Curriculum Vitae

Personal Information:

First Name: Prasanna
Last Name: Parasuraman
Residence Address: Oerlikonerstrasse 44, CH-8057, Zurich
Office Address: Bau 17-L-, IVBMB, University of Zurich,
Winterthurerstrasse 190, CH-8057, Zurich
Date of Birth: 09-09-1980
Marital Status: Married
Nationality: Indian
E-mail: prasanna_iisc2003@yahoo.co.in
Phone Numbers: +41-(0) 789 073 784 (mobile)
+41-(44) 635 5481 (office)

Educational Qualification:

2006-2010 PhD student at the Institute of
Veterinary Biochemistry and Molecular Biology,
University of Zurich, Switzerland

2001-2003 Master of Science in Biochemistry
Bangalore University, India

1998-2001 Bachelor of Science in Microbiology
Bangalore University, India

1994-1998 Higher Secondary Education
Kendriya Vidyalaya, Bangalore, India

Financial Support:

11/2006 - 9/2007: UBS Foundation
10/2007 - 9/2008: Wolfesmann-Naegeli Stiftung
10/2008 - 3/2009: Oncosuisse
04/2009 - 4/2010: Swiss National Science Foundation

List of Publications:

“Design, synthesis, and application of novel triclosan prodrugs as potential antimalarial and antibacterial agents”.

Authors – Mishra S, Karmodiya K, Parasuraman P, Surolia A, Surolia N.

Journal – Bioorganic Medicinal Chemistry, 2008 May 15;16(10):5536-46.

“Discovery of a rhodanine class of compounds as inhibitors of Plasmodium falciparum enoyl-acyl carrier protein reductase”.

Authors – Kumar G, Parasuraman P, Sharma SK, Banerjee T, Karmodiya K, Surolia A, Surolia N.

Journal – Journal of Medicinal Chemistry, 2007 May 31;50(11):2665-75.

“Green tea catechins potentiate triclosan binding to enoyl-ACP reductase from Plasmodium falciparum (PfENR)”.

Authors – Sharma SK¹, Parasuraman P¹, Kumar G, Surolia A, Surolia N.

Journal – Journal of Medicinal Chemistry, 2007 Feb 22;50(4):765-75.

“Novel diphenyl ethers: design, docking studies, synthesis and inhibition of enoyl ACP reductase of Plasmodium falciparum and Escherichia coli”.

Author – Chhibber M, Kumar G, Parasuraman P, Ramya TN, Surolia A, Surolia N.

Journal – Bioorganic Medicinal Chemistry, 2006 Dec 1;14(23):8086-98.

Patents:

“Synergistic composition for modulating activity of substrate analogs of NAD⁺, NADP⁺, NADH, or NADPH dependent enzymes and process thereof”.

Patent Shareholders – Avadhesh Surolia, Namita Surolia, Shailendra K. Sharma, Prasanna Parasuraman, Gyanendra Kumar.